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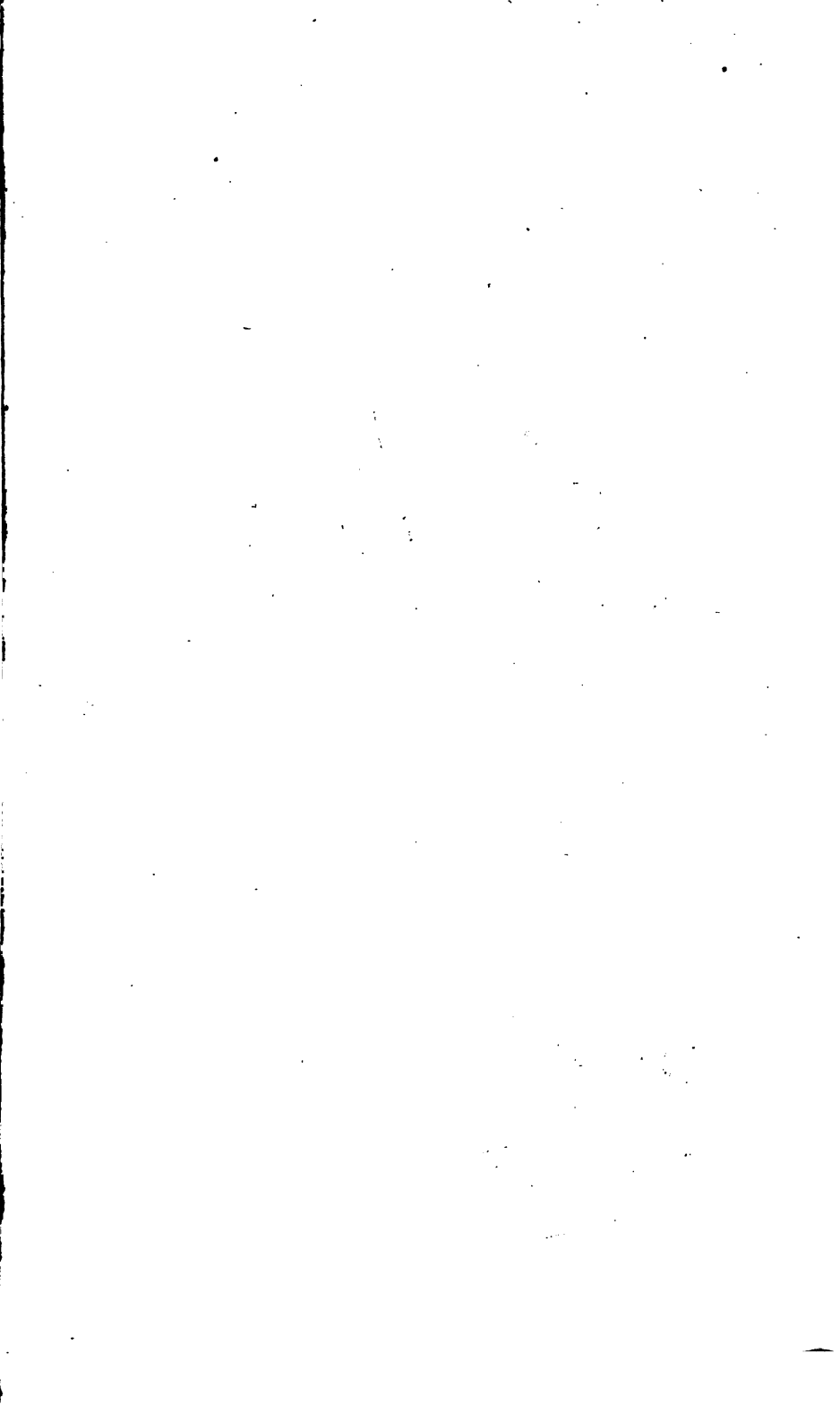
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# EDUCATION MONTHLY

Organ of the Chicago Teachers' Association,

AND THE

CHICAGO BOARD OF COMMONS SCHOOLS

JOHN R. ...

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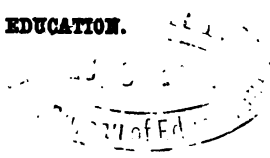
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ON TEACHING NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

BY X.

There are many things in Mr. Mendenhall's article, in the December number of the *Monthly*, to which I fully agree, and for which I heartily thank him. With his permission, I should like to add a supplement.

Much of the difficulty encountered in teaching Natural Philosophy is of the same nature as that presented in other sciences requiring the use of the syllogism; but it is often increased by the suppression of one of the premises which the tyro will not or can not supply. Many of the demonstrations, doubtless, seem to the beginner to be based on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle, and many of the principles on which the science is founded, are rather accepted than comprehended even by the most mature intellects. At the same time, Natural Philosophy presents a great variety of facts and principles which a mere child can readily explain without assistance from any one, or which he may easily master when the conditions are fairly stated. The main difficulty then lies in selecting such portions of the science as are adapted to the age, ability, and previous training of the pupil. Authors

generally compile text-books with reference to an ideal class, having ideal capabilities and ideal attainments: the teacher is fortunate when his class corresponds in all respects with the one supposed by the author, for then his work goes on with little friction by virtue of its own momentum. We thus have text-books on Physics for colleges, for academies, for grammar schools, and for home instruction. These books are graded with reference to the use required of them, and, to say the least, the teacher has a large list to select from, and is bound to choose the one best adapted to his wants, which is in all cases one a little above the average comprehension of his pupils. It is also required of the teacher to be above his text-book so far as to warrant him in assuming to be the authority in mooted questions, and to enable him to supply the incidental defects of want of accuracy, completeness, and clearness. These defects should be pointed out to the class *before* the sections containing them are studied, that there may be no work done which must be undone; lest, as Mr. Mendenhall suggests, there remain in the mind of the pupil the taint of old error.

There is another consideration respecting text-books which should not be overlooked, and which I hope, at some time, to present at length. The Natural Sciences are generally regarded as having their main value in the educational curriculum through the mass of useful facts presented; but as a means of mental discipline, they are all invaluable when rightly used. This is especially true of Natural Philosophy, from its close connection with applied Mathematics. From this point of view, that text-book on Physics is the best, that mode of teaching is the most desirable, which so presents the theme as to show the logical connection of the parts, the dependence of facts, apparently remote, upon the same common principle, the generalization of many principles into universal laws. The good judgment of the teacher will determine how much of logical method is available in the given circumstances of his pupils. Little children may learn many desirable facts, but children of larger growth should go farther and fare better.

As regards the mode of presenting the subject, I think that teachers often err in doing too much themselves, leaving too little to be done by their pupils. There is no one, even the laziest, who

does not experience great satisfaction in the mental elasticity which succeeds the strain required for the mastery of great truths. Of course there is a limit to mental as well as physical elasticity, but no elasticity whatever is manifest except under the previous application of some external force. Suppose an experiment has been performed not explicitly stated in the text-book, but comprehended in the general principles adduced, if the majority of the class do not at once "see through it," let its explanation pass for a day or for many days, stirring up their minds occasionally by way of remembrance. Give them at times full permission to talk the matter over among themselves, and at other times withhold the privilege.

The experiments, as a rule, should be exhibited before the explanation of the principles involved is attempted; but not before they have read over the matter in their text-books. Where, as in connection with the air-pump, there are many experiments illustrating different properties, the experiments should be classified in accordance with the specific property illustrated, and the class should be required to prove the existence of the property by the experiments. When it is possible, the experiments should be performed with apparatus that the class may make at home. The importance of experiments in fixing facts and principles in the minds of the pupils, is not generally recognized. Too often they are regarded merely as affording the class a sort of relaxation from the monotony of recitation. They are proofs of facts, and should always be required in the statements of facts.

In my own experience, I have found it profitable to develop some one theme with each class beyond the limits of an ordinary text-book, merely to impress the pupils with the extent and capabilities of the subject, but deriving thereby much other good both to myself and them. In this way I have worked out thoroughly at different times, but not all with the same class, for want of time, specific gravity, the pendulum, mirrors, the steam engine, polarized light, etc., etc. In each case, it cost me much thought and labor to bring the various ramifications of the several themes to the average comprehension. Sometimes I found it necessary to devote the study of a week to contrive the apparatus and develop the method for the simple elucidation of the principles involved. I have pursued this plan for several years, and intend

to persevere in it for the sake of keeping out of the old ruts of thought and labor. Let no one say that the themes mentioned are easy until he has written out exactly what he wishes to give his class in place of the matter in the text-book. Let any one make one trial of this, and he will make many.

Another thing has often troubled me, which is the amount that ought to be learned by each pupil. Many topics in any text-book are of so inconsiderable importance that it seems a waste of time and strength to burden the mind of the student with them, especially if it involves the exclusion in part of weightier themes. The themes that I consider unimportant may not seem so to others, but all will agree that some are merely burdensome. What shall be done with such? My plan has been to require these as a sort of reading lesson, and to give in a short lecture the facts that are most worthy of remembrance, and require nothing in recitation beyond a quiz on the lecture. Without some such precaution, I find my pupils are prone to study over the invention of some useless trinket, or through a wordy explanation of a self-evident proposition, with as much painstaking care as upon the steam-engine, or the law of gravitation.

The mathematical bugbear is the lion in the way of younger pupils, and oftentimes bars further advance. Yet mathematical formulæ are so valuable that their application at least should be mastered if possible. I think a little pains on the part of the teacher will give even very young pupils enough of algebra to comprehend the properties of a simple equation. My own pupils study Natural Philosophy before making much progress in mathematics, so that I sometimes find it necessary to give a lesson or two in the latter science.

Teachers, however, must not expect to find many philosophers among their pupils even after the most intelligent training. Mr. Mendenhall's class contains as large a proportion as any that I ever saw; viz., one in eight. I do not think that this small proportion is due to any inherent mental deficiency; but that it is almost entirely caused by poor training in the lower grades of schools. Young children are not taught to think for themselves as they should, and this reacts upon them throughout their educational course.

## OBJECT TEACHING IN THE OSWEGO SCHOOLS.

[The following is the concluding portion of a "Report on Object Teaching" read at the late meeting of the National Teachers' Association by Prof. S. S. Greene, of Rhode Island, in behalf of a committee consisting of seven of the most eminent educators of the country:]

We come now to the final question: Does the plan pursued at Oswego conform to these general principles?

We answer unhesitatingly—in the main it does. It may not be right in all its philosophy, or in all its practice. Whether the practice is better than the philosophy, or the philosophy than the practice, we will not pretend to say. Neither is it our object or purpose to appear as champions of the system, to defend it against attacks, or cover up what is faulty. We simply appear to report it, and our opinions upon it, so far as the examinations of one week will enable us to do.

But what is the Oswego system? The schools of the city—a city of some twenty-three thousand inhabitants—are divided into four grades: Primary, Junior, Senior and High,—corresponding to the Primary, Secondary or Intermediate, Grammar and High schools of other cities. Besides these grades, there is an unclassified school continued through the year, to meet the wants of pupils who are not well adapted to the graded schools; and yet another kept in winter, to accommodate those who can attend only during that season. Each grade is subdivided into classes named in the order of rank from the lowest, C, B, A. Something like the object system was introduced in 1859. But in 1861, these peculiar features were more fully developed. Previous to the last date, the schools were in session six hours per day. Since that time the daily sessions have been shortened one hour in all the schools.

The peculiar system called the "object system" was introduced at first into only the Primary grade. In 1861, it had gained so much favor with the School Board, that a Training School was established under the direction of Miss Jones, from the Home and Colonial Institution, London. At present the system has reached the Junior schools, and now prevails throughout the two lower grades.

The Training School, which forms a prominent feature of the

system, is at present established in the Fourth Ward school building. Besides the Training School, this building contains a city Primary with its classes A, B, C,—a Junior A, B, C, and a Senior A, B, C. Each Primary and each Junior school throughout the city is provided with a permanent principal and permanent assistant for each of the classes. In the Fourth Ward schools, however, only one assistant is permanently appointed. The place of the second assistant is supplied from the Training School. The exercises in these two grades are the same throughout the city—except in the building of the Training School, where additional exercises, hereafter to be described, are introduced. In this building, then, we shall find the ordinary lessons in “Object Teaching” as well as the peculiar lessons of the Training School. Let us enter any Primary school at the beginning of the year, with the C class at the age of five, fresh from home life, for the first time to enter upon school duties. They come with their slates and pencils—and this is all. Their first exercise is not to face the alphabet arranged in vertical or horizontal column, and echo the names of the letters after the teacher in response to the question, “What is that?”—a question the teacher knows they can not answer, and, therefore, ought not to ask. But some familiar object, one of the boys of the class, it may be, is placed before them, and called upon to raise his hand—the class do the same. This is beginning with the known. Then he is called upon to raise his right hand. This may be an advance into the obscurely known; the class do the same if they can make the proper distinction; if not, the first lesson marks *clearly* the distinction between the right hand and the left. Something *real* and *tangible* is done. The children can now distinguish between the right ear and the left ear, the right eye and the left eye. Here is acquired knowledge *applied*.

But what of their slates? The teacher may first give a lesson—*practical* of course—on the use of the slate and pencil. Standing at the blackboard, she utters the sound represented by some letter, as *t*. The class utters it. They repeat it, till the sound becomes a distinct object to the ear. She then prints upon the board the letter *t*. This becomes an object to the eye. She points to it and gives the sound—they repeat the sound. She points again, they repeat. She gives the sound, they point. Two ob-



jects are *associated*. Now in their seats the letter *t* is to be made upon their slates till the next lesson is given. In this second lesson an advance is made upon the parts of the human body, or another sound—as the short sound of *a* is given, then the character as before. Now the two sounds are put together—then the two letters. Two objects are *combined*, and we have the word *at*. But before this lesson is given, the children go through with a series of physical exercises. Perhaps, next, the whole class is sent to the sides of the room. Here is a narrow shelf, answering both as a table and a ledge to the blackboard. Under this are apartments containing beans. The children take them one by one and count. They arrange them in sets of two or three, etc. They unite one and one, that is, bean to bean—one and two, etc. They take away one from two, one from three, and so on. They now return to their seats and make marks upon their slates, to take the place of the beans. In short this Primary room is a busy workshop—not one idle moment. One year is passed in this manner. The children have learned many useful lessons; have mastered a set of Reading Cards—have learned to spell many words involving the short sounds of the vowels and most of the consonants. They have lessons on form and color, on place and size; on drawing, on moral conduct; and these are changed once in two weeks.

They are now promoted to the B class. They commence reading from the primer. They can write upon their slates and form tables. They have Object lessons more difficult and more interesting. They can read the statement of the facts developed as they are drawn off upon the board. They can write them themselves. They now learn to make their own record of facts upon their slates. Their written work is examined and criticised. They read their own statements, and do it with ease and naturalness, because the thoughts are their own. They learn to represent numbers with figures. They make out numerical tables for addition and subtraction, not by copying, but by actual combinations with beans or otherwise. They thus *realize* these tables. In short, a mingling of Object lessons with writing, spelling, reading, singing, physical exercise, adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing, elementary geography, and natural history, occupies their attention through the first three years. All the lessons are given

objectively. The children *realize* what they learn ; and this is not the mere theory of the system, it is, in the main, the *actual* working of the plan. The schools are not all equally good. The teachers are not all equally imbued with the spirit of the system. There were failures. There were misconceptions of the objects aimed at, and misconceptions of the method of reaching it. There were given lessons which were superior—even brilliant. Others were fair—perhaps moderate.

In the Junior grade, similar, but more advanced lessons are given, until the pupils are prepared for the Senior schools, where these peculiar characteristics cease. As to the time occupied by these peculiar lessons, or general exercises, it should be said that two exercises per day are given of from fifteen to thirty minutes each in the Primary schools, and one only in the Junior. And yet be it remembered that all the exercises in the ordinary school work are intended to be true object lessons.

Let us now pass to the Training school. Here, it should be borne in mind, are regular Primary and Junior schools under permanent teachers, who act the part both of model teachers and critics before the members of the Normal school, or Training class. The members of this class become alternately pupils and teachers, known under the name of pupil-teachers. At the beginning of the term they are assigned to act as assistants one-half day and as pupils the other, alternating with each other during the term, so that each may go through every exercise. The regular teacher gives a lesson to the class. The assistants observe and mark the methods as models for imitation both as respects the steps in the lesson, and the management of the class under instruction. One of the assistants—a pupil-teacher—next gives a lesson. She is now under a double criticism, first from her equals—the other pupil-teachers present ; and second, from the regular teacher. She is not doing *fictitious*, but *real* teaching. She has not first to imagine that a class of adults is a class of children, and then she is to give a specimen lesson. Nor has she a class of specimen children. She has a class of children sent to school for *real* purposes, by parents who entertain other views than to have their sons and daughters made mere subjects for experimenting.

There is work under the feeling of responsibility, with all the natural desire to succeed—nay, to excel. Under these circum-

stances the merits or demerits of her lesson will be pretty surely made known to her.

The superiority of this plan over any other for Normal training is obvious. Some of these pupil-teachers evinced great presence of mind and no little skill.

But now the scene changes; these pupil-teachers return to the room of the training class, and their places are supplied by the retiring set. In this room the theory of teaching is discussed, and exemplified by practical lessons given by the Normal teachers to small classes of children brought in from the Primary or Junior grades. These lessons are to be drawn off by the class and examined as illustrations of the theory. Then, again, a pupil is called upon to give a lesson to a similar class—while both the training class and teacher act as critics. The points of excellence and of defect are freely discussed, and practical hints as to the method of the lesson, its effect upon the class, etc., etc., are freely given. Under this kind of training, a most efficient corps of teachers is prepared to fill all vacancies, and give increased vitality to the schools throughout the city.

The system has been modified from time to time as new suggestions have come up, or as theoretic plans have been tested. Further experience will undoubtedly result in other changes.

The lessons in the English language had some points of great merit.

The habit of *writing* exercises by all the pupils every hour of the day can not fail to secure ease of expression with the pen, and with the incessant care that is practised at the outset by the teachers to secure neatness and order in the writing, correctness in the use of capitals and punctuation marks, accuracy of expression, and faultless spelling, is laying a most excellent foundation for a high order of scholarship.

The opportunity for cultivating correct habits of conversation which is afforded during the object lessons does more than any other one thing to promote a good use of language in speaking. The children are uttering living thought, and not text-book language. Their own habits of using words come out conspicuously, and are made subjects of cultivation.

The more formal lessons in language were in the main admirably conducted. Here the teacher made use of objects present, or

the conceptions of familiar objects absent, and accepted for the time any or all of the various expressions employed by the pupils to enumerate their ideas of the same action or event. Then came the question of a final choice among them all. A box was moved along the table, and the children gave, "The box *moves, is pushed, is shoved, slides, etc.*" A very large majority chose the expression "*slides.*"

Occasionally, the sentences and forms of expression had a bookish aspect, and lacked spontaneousness; and there were enough of these, if captiously seized upon, to make the method appear ridiculous. So again expressions and terms were sometimes evolved, which would not be out of place in a scientific treatise. These were accepted of course. But if used too frequently they would seem like the coat of a young man placed upon a mere boy.

These, however, at most were but spots on the face of the sun. The whole plan was admirable in theory and in practice.

The spelling exercises were multiplied and varied. They had regular spelling lessons. They wrote words upon the slate. They wrote on the board. They spelled orally for the teacher when she wrote, and they spelled on all occasions.

On the whole, the views which Mr. Camp, the Superintendent of Public Schools for the State of Connecticut, a member of this Committee, gives of his observations on Object Teaching, were fully confirmed here. He says: "Having had an opportunity to observe the methods pursued in Object Teaching in Boston, Mass., Oswego, N. Y., Patterson, N. J., and at Toronto and Montreal, Canada, and in connection with other methods in some other places, I will, at your request, give the results, as they appeared to me. When ever this system has been confined to elementary instruction, and has been employed by skillful, thorough teachers in unfolding and disciplining the faculties, in fixing the attention and awakening thought, it has been successful. Pupils trained under this system have evinced more of quickness and accuracy of perception, careful observation, and a correctness of judgment which results from accurate discrimination and proper comparisons. They have seemed much better acquainted with the works of nature, and better able to understand allusions to nature, art, and social life, as found in books. But when 'Object Lessons' have been made to supplant the use of books in higher instrue-

tion, or when scientific knowledge has been the principal object sought in these lessons, the system has not been successful, so far as I have been able to observe the results."

In conclusion, it should be said, that it is no small commendation of the system, that all the ground formerly gone over in the two lower grades is accomplished now in the same time, and that in daily sessions of five hours instead of six. The plan renders school life to the little children far less irksome than before. The teachers generally, who have adopted and practised it, give it their unqualified approval. The Board of Education and their intelligent and indefatigable Superintendent see no cause to return to the old methods, but, on the contrary, are more and more pleased with its practical working. That the citizens of a town, in former years, not specially noted for literary or educational progress, should from year to year sustain and encourage it, nay, take an honest pride in increasing the facilities for carrying it forward, is proof positive that it has intrinsic merit. And finally, that the State of New York should make ample provision to support its Training School, shows that the thinking men of the State see in the system something more than mere tinsel and outward show.

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## UP-NORTH LETTERS.

## No. VIII.

CLEVELAND, *December*, 1865.

FRIEND WHITE: Inclosed please find a list of eighty-two subscribers to the *Educational Monthly*; all teachers in our schools. But one of all whom I asked to subscribe, refused. About thirty I omitted to ask, owing to their family relationship. They were sisters, or associated boarders. One number of the *Monthly* was judged to be sufficient for one household. I sincerely hope that subscriptions will flow in upon you to such an extent that your most sanguine expectations may be more than realized.

Since my last letter many changes have occurred in our schools; to a few of which I will allude. At the close of our last school

year, Alanson G. Hopkinson, Principal of our West High School, in consequence of ill health, resigned. Charles C. Rounds, Principal of the Peal Street School, at the same time resigned. Both of these gentlemen returned to their former homes in Maine. Mr. H. is succeeded by Albert G. Manson, former Principal of the Hicks Street School; and Mr. R. by George Beck, late of Lockport, N. Y. Capt. Wm. S. Wood, who fought bravely at Shiloh, Stone River, and elsewhere, and suffered severely in the Libby Prison, succeeds our lamented Mr. Eastman as Principal of the Mayflower Street School. Frank S. Fitch succeeds Mr. Manson in the Hicks Street School. A few days ago, Mr. Alex. Forbes resigned the principalship of the Kentucky Street School, to take charge of the High School at Brooklyn Center; and he will be succeeded here by Mr. Newton Anthony, of Akron.

Several of our excellent lady teachers have resigned within a few months, whose names need not be here mentioned. But of one, Miss Catharine Gillett, I will speak. For eleven years she has been connected with our Central High School. A better teacher and a more excellent lady never blessed the schools of Ohio. At the close of our current term she will leave us; greatly to the regret of all interested in our schools.

Our new Brownell Street School was opened in October, and is now in full "running order." It has, under the charge of seventeen teachers, nine hundred and forty pupils. I find it out of my power to send you the plan, measurements, etc., of the building. A cut of the house, presenting internal as well as external views, will be found in the forthcoming report of our Superintendent of Instruction, which was presented to the Board of Education four weeks ago. Just when it will come from the hands of the printer, I can not say. I take from it the following figures, which illustrate the growth of our schools within the last fifteen years:

	1850.	1855.	1860.	1865.	1865-6.
School youth enumerated.....	5,041	12,076	14,309	18,023	.....
Enrolled in Public Schools.....	2,304	4,701	4,992	7,528	.....
Number of teachers required .....	32	64	83	98	113

It seems to be the opinion of Clevelanders that our schools are doing well; an opinion with which I am not inclined to take issue. The addition of sixteen new rooms to our school accommodations,

is an immense advantage to our schools. I believe that no city, east or west, is favored with better teachers than those engaged in our schools. Still, there is abundant room for improvement. We come very far short of our ideals of what schools should be. We hope that the day is coming when our schools will be at least one hundred per cent. better than they ever yet have been.

A few weeks ago, the salaries of our lady-teachers were increased fifteen per cent., making them, for the higher grade, \$550, and for the lower, \$500 per annum. These amounts apply to all the ladies except those in the High Schools.

The salaries of our Principals have not been increased during the past year; but I confidently hope that they soon will be. The average salary paid these gentlemen, is not far from \$1,250. I suppose the salaries paid here are quite as high as those paid in most of the large towns throughout the west. How very poor, then, is the encouragement, in the way of pecuniary reward, for young men of talent and education to enter the teaching profession. Is there any other calling or business, that makes returns so scanty and so disproportionate to the capital invested? When we consider the time and money expended in acquiring the requisite education, and then the expenditure of energy, both mental and physical, in teaching and governing our large schools, how can our best young men "have respect to the recompense of the reward?" It demands quite as many brains and quite as much learning to become a successful Principal of a large school in any of our Ohio cities, as it does to practice law or medicine; to be a merchant or a manufacturer. Yet how different are the pecuniary results of teaching and those of almost any other occupation which demands equal ability and effort!

Though the salaries of teachers in most towns have been *nominally* increased within the last five years, they are *really* less now than before the war. The value of a salary depends, not upon the number of dollars by which it is expressed, but upon its *purchasing power*; upon the support which it affords; upon the essentials and comforts of life which it procures. It therefore varies with the state of the market. When the price of commodities declines, the value of the salary appreciates. When the price of goods and provisions rises, the worth of the salary depreciates.

In the light of this fact, no argument is requisite to prove that

teachers were never so poorly paid as now. Since the war commenced, the price of board in this city has more than doubled; and the price of most kinds of dry goods has fully trebled. For the purposes for which teachers are obliged to use money, a dollar at the present time is worth, at the outside, no more than forty cents were five years ago. Reducing thus a salary of \$1,250, it amounts to just \$500! Who would not be a teacher! It costs about twice this sum to spend a year as a student in Yale College.

These figures tell a very sad tale; all the more sad because its truth can not be intelligently questioned. None of our Principals, except those most favorably situated in regard to expenses, can live on their salaries. If they do not fall in debt, the value of their wardrobes depreciates. Some of them draw upon their careful savings in former years. And how hard a case is this resort! The dollar which was laid aside in better days, has run down to forty cents, when employed to eke out the present salary.

I suppose that we in Cleveland are as well paid as are teachers generally in our State. Our Board of Education is composed of men who wish to be as liberal with their teachers as the funds at their disposal will admit. But people who have ample means, and those in prosperous business, do not realize the increased cost of living. Mechanics and all laborers have it in their power to increase their receipts as their expenses increase. For capitalists and business men generally, the times are regarded as exceedingly prosperous. According to popular opinion, the wealth of this city has more than doubled within the last three years. But for teachers, and for all who are dependent on fixed incomes, the present generation never knew times so hard, so oppressive.

What shall be done to mend this matter? Let the wise men of our profession answer. Let my worthy friend White "make a motion," as they say in "deliberate bodies;" and let fifty other men—the Barneys, the Cowderys, the Harveys, the Hardings, the Edwardses, the De Wolfs, the Holes, the Mitchells, the Stephenson, and others—second the resolution; and some good will result. The State is twice as rich as it was before the war—so people say—let them pay higher taxes, and then higher salaries can be paid teachers.

Should there be a contraction of our irredeemable currency,



followed by a decline in prices, Dives may not like the change, but Lazarus will be comforted.

It is all very nice, very generous and noble, to talk about having a higher aim in teaching than getting big salaries. But it is not so very easy to rise above all worldly considerations, upon an empty stomach, and in a ragged coat.

YOURS TRULY.

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### DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

[The following is the concluding portion of a paper read before the National Teachers' Association, at Harrisburg, Pa., by RICHARD EDWARDS, Principal Illinois State Normal University:]

We say, then, most emphatically, that normal schools, with their distinctive characteristics, should be established and maintained in each State at public expense.

And what are these distinctive characteristics? Wherein and how does a normal school differ from any other well-conducted institution in which the same subjects in the main may be studied?

First we answer, It differs in its aim. Using, to a great extent, the same instruments as other schools,—namely, treatises upon science and language,—it nevertheless uses them for purposes very diverse. In an ordinary school the treatise on Arithmetic is put into the hands of the student in order that he may *learn arithmetic*: in the normal school the same book is used in order to enable him to learn *how to teach* arithmetic. In the ordinary school the youth reads his Cicero with the purpose of learning the structure, vocabulary and power of the Latin language: the normal student pores over the same author that he may adjust in his mind a method by which he may most successfully teach others these things. Both use the same materials, acquire, to some extent, the same knowledge, but aiming all the while at different ends. Of course, it is clear that one of these objects must presuppose the accomplishment of the other. The proper work of the normal school can not be performed unless the mastery of the subjects has been first obtained.

Because different men have to do with the same object, it does not follow that the sight or thought of it gives rise in their minds to the same associations. To the outward eye of the shipwright and sailor, the gallant ship, trim and taut with canvas spread and filled by the friendly breeze, is the same; to both she is an object of pride and admiration: but how different the scenes and duties of which she reminds the two! To one she recalls the ship-yard, with all its belongings,—the stocks, the unwrought materials, the weary mortising, sawing, hammering, bolt-driving, caulking, and paying. He sees her as she was in the process of combination, while as yet her symmetry was undeveloped and her beauty of line and curve existed only in the brain of the master-builder. To

the other she is a reminder of winds and waves, of distant voyages and foreign climes, of lonely watches and beating storms, of the midnight upon the glassy ocean and under the star-decked heavens. To the builder she is, in an important sense, an end: his chief concern with her ceases when, for the first time, her sails filled, she glides, obedient to her helm, over the watery highway. To the mariner she is a means, bearing him up amid the storm, protecting him against the dangers of the deep, gathering up for him the "wealth of Ormus and of Ind."

So with the subjects of study in school. To the ordinary student arithmetic is associated, it may be, with severe efforts at mastering its principles; with perseverance and success, or irresolution and failure. But to him who is preparing to teach it recalls the points most difficult of *explanation*, and the minds most difficult to reach. His constant question is not, How can I master this principle or process? but, How will this point seem to my pupils? To one it is an end: his concern with it ceases when, obedient to his will, its principles come at call, and appear before his mind, luminous and clear. To the other it is a means to the training of mind. It is not enough for him that his eye can take in the whole field and scan the relation of the parts; he must see that, as an instrument, it does the work—accomplishes the result—set for it. To him the study must culminate in an increase of intellectual and moral power somewhere. He must see, as the result of it all, a well-developed, symmetrical human soul! In these schools the whole animus of both teacher and pupil is this idea of future teaching. Every plan is made to conform to it. Every measure proposed is tried by this test. There is no other aim or purpose to claim any share of the mental energy of either. It is the Alpha and Omega of schemes of study and modes of thought.

And is this distinct and separate aim, in the preparatory seminary, of any value to the novice? Will he be likely, on account of this, to make any better teacher than he would without it,—his training in all other respects being the same? In answer to this question we say, most emphatically, Yes! And in so saying we doubtless express the conviction of every educator who has given the subject much thought. May we not say that if every scrap of educational literature were to be blotted out; if Comenius were to be forgotten with all his works; if Roger Ascham were to fade out from the literary horizon; if Pestalozzi were to become as a myth; if the educational utterances of Socrates, Plato and Quintilian were to be eliminated from the sum of human knowledge; if Horace Mann, with the thoughts and inspiration he has left us, were to vanish from book and from memory; and if nothing were to be left the teacher and pupil in the normal school but their own thoughts and their unaided efforts: if all this were to happen, may we not even then say that these institutions, by the mere force of the fact that their aim is what it is, would be not only useful, but necessary,—ay, all the more necessary on account of these very circumstances? Shall we not, therefore, concede that the difference in aim between the normal and the ordinary school makes one of the distinctive and essential characteristics of the former, and that this difference is of itself sufficient to establish its claim to separate support?

But, thank God, the wise utterances of the past are still with us. Pestalozzi has not faded out. Horace Mann is commemorated not alone, or chiefly, in statue and monument, however honorable these may be to those who rear them. Literature preserves for us the results of ancient and modern thought and experience on the subject of education. And the normal school has therefore for one of its distinctive characteristics that it imparts instruction in the science of education and the art of teaching. Thoughtful men have observed the phenomena of the mind, juvenile and adult, have compared the results of their observations, and have given us the truths and principles evolved by their thinking. These we are able, to some extent, to present to our normal students as helps in forming their own opinions, and constructing their own theories of education; and every year improves the material thus furnished. In our times many able minds are intensely laboring upon this problem of ascertaining and stating the principles of education. Books are continually issuing from the press setting them forth. Of course, in the multiplicity of publications there has been some trash. In our eagerness, we have plucked some immature fruit. The tree is young, and has not yet, we are confident, reached its best bearing. But already some plump and luscious specimens have fallen into our baskets, and we know that more and finer are yet to come. In the mean time, let us cherish the tree; let the soil be tilled by the assiduous labor of every active teacher; let it be watered by the generous showers of a beneficent legislation; and let it be warmed into lusty life and a glorious fruitage by the genial rays of an appreciative public sentiment!

It has been some times intimated that this pretended science of education is a myth,—that the talk about it is of little account. It has been charged, perhaps not altogether generously, that its advocates and professors are more enthusiastic than wise; that they are either intentional deceivers of the public, or unwitting deceivers of themselves; that, in short, the whole matter is a sort of well-intentioned imposture. Now, we are free to confess that some of the talk aforesaid has been a trifle unsubstantial; that an occasional apostle has appeared with more zeal than knowledge; that some of the professors, it is barely possible, have chipped the shell a little prematurely. But it is not necessary, at this late day, to assure you that there is here as noble a science as ever engaged the thought of man. There are immutable principles here, that ought to be studied and comprehended by every young person entering upon the work of teaching. There is in the nature of things a foundation for a profession of teachers. Compare the science of Education with other sciences in this respect. Take the science of Medicine. Have we not well-defined, universally-acknowledged, practically-important principles, as well in the Teachers' College as the College of Physicians? and as that science now is, with its various schools and numerous isms, have we not about as many of them? Or take the clerical profession, including all the denominations considered respectable, and are there not as many useful and important points upon which we teachers are all agreed as there are among the ministers? In truth, the science of education is, in some respects, in the most satisfactory condition. Its conclusions have not crystallized into such rigid forms that there is no room for further discussion. Its principles are sufficiently well established to serve as guides to the

thoughtful inquirer, but not so limited in details as to cramp his faculties or repress his thought.

Here, then, we have the second distinctive characteristic of the normal school,—that it instructs its pupils in the Science of Education and the Art of Teaching.

Another essential requisite in a normal school is, that it gives its pupils an opportunity of some kind for practice in teaching, under the supervision and subject to the criticism of experienced and skillful instructors. This is accomplished in various ways: by exercises in conducting the regular classes of the normal school; by classes of normal pupils assuming for the time the character of children, and receiving instruction and answering questions as they think children would; and by a separate school of children, in which the novice is intrusted with the charge of a class, either permanently or for a stated period, as a week, or two weeks, as the case may be. There seem to be varying opinions as to which of these is the best and most efficient method. The Model or Experimental School has been objected to, because it interferes with the daily drill of the student in his classes, and also because the children taught by these students are supposed not to be so well taught as they would be by instructors of more experience. But I think both these evils may be entirely avoided: the first by a proper distribution of the time for study and for teaching; and the second by an adequate supervision of the pupil-teachers, added to the responsibility imposed upon them by continuing the same class under the same teacher during a term of school, and subjecting it at the close of that term to such an examination as is usual in the case of regular teachers. The school for practice is unquestionably essential to the complete idea of a normal school. When the young practitioner is dealing with children, he encounters the reality of his work. The real difficulties of his employment are before him. There is no make-believe. He is never in doubt as to whether his methods are such as to interest and instruct children, for the children are there and he can see for himself, and all others can do the same, whether they are interested and instructed or not. Every question he asks, every suggestion he makes, is tested on the spot, by the proper and natural test. But it is said that more skill is necessary to teach a class of adults personating children than to teach an equal number of actual little ones; and that therefore this practice is of more value than the other. It may be so in respect to the difficulty, and if we knew that every additional degree of difficulty adds strength to the mind overcoming it, we might allow that higher results might be gained in this way than by the other. But this assumption is not true. It is more difficult to calculate an eclipse than to ascertain the value of ten pounds of sugar at twenty cents a pound, and what a vast increase of mental strength is required in passing from the latter to the former. It is also more difficult to shoot pigeons with a sixty-four-pounder than with a proper fowling piece, and most difficult of all to see any advantage that is likely to come from the attempt. Increasing the difficulty of an undertaking does not necessarily improve its effect. Unnatural methods of accomplishing results are difficult, and certainly not to be commended on that or any other account.

Again, we mention as a distinctive characteristic of normal schools that they beget an *esprit du corps*, and kindle a glowing enthusiasm among their pupils. They tend to exalt the business of teaching. They show it up in its nobler in stead of its meaner colors. By infusing an element of philosophy into the very work of instruction, they dignify every step of it. Under this influence the work of primary instruction becomes the worthiest part of the entire task, because, considered with respect to the child's wants, it is the most important. It takes profounder insight into the child's nature to lay aright the foundations of his culture in the primary school than to help him at any other stage of his progress, because the primary teacher must see the end from the very beginning. His plans for the future must embrace the child's entire career: no partial view of the field is sufficient. This the normal school brings into view, and insists upon. Admit this truth, and you at once exalt the work of elementary instruction into a dignified science,—into something worth the study of any mind. Make the excellence of teaching to depend upon what you teach, and there is little to arouse the enthusiasm of some of our number, for a knowledge of the alphabet and abs can hardly be considered as bestowing any great amount of mental strength.

Normal schools, then, should be established and maintained by State authority. For this we urge the consideration that these schools are necessary to the success of the common schools.

Normal schools are characterized by the fact that they have in view the special object of preparing teachers; that this is their entire aim and end; that they foster a professional spirit and generate professional enthusiasm; that they give instruction in the science and art of teaching: and that just now, as our country is situated, they are specially needed, in order to extend the influence of Free Schools all over the region lately blasted by slavery. Any one of these characteristics is a sufficient vindication of these institutions. Taken together, they form an argument in behalf of normal schools irresistible and imposing. May they continue to grow in usefulness and in public favor until they have achieved results worthy of the confidence they solicit.

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GOVERNOR ANDERSON in his very lengthy Message disposes of the school question briefly, thus:—"The report of the Commissioner is replete with many interesting and encouraging statements and suggestions. Those in regard to the new system for instruction and preparation of teachers, I commend especially to your attention. It is hoped that in this fundamental interest, Ohio will not remain behind other States.

"I am sorry that I have not time nor space in this too long communication to speak more at large upon this great general subject of common schools—so much more important than much else here included. One consolation is, that it is because there is apparently less to censure or amend in this department than in some others, that I have less to say upon it."

# Official Department.

OFFICE OF STATE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER,  
COLUMBUS, OHIO, Jan. 2, 1866. }

## TO SCHOOL OFFICERS:

The delay in the publication of the new edition of the School Laws, caused by a want of paper, induces me to insert below the opinions and instructions relating to the *twenty-fourth* section of the school law. I have the promise that the work shall be issued at an early day, and as most of it is now in type, I hope no further disappointment may occur.

E. E. WHITE,  
*Commissioner of Common Schools.*

### Section XXIV.

73. DISBURSEMENT OF CONTINGENT FUND.—The custom which has prevailed in some townships, of dividing up the contingent fund and placing the same in the hands of the local directors of the several sub-districts, to be paid out as the money may be needed, is clearly illegal. All school funds must be retained in the custody of the township treasurer until drawn out for the payment of *specified* expenses. Section 7 makes it the duty of local directors to report all contracts, made under the provisions of that section, to the township board, at their next meeting after the making of such contracts, for payment. Inasmuch as the meetings of the board are not frequent, the clerk may be authorized by the board to draw the requisite orders for amounts certified by local directors to be due on contracts made by them under the direction of the board. See section 7. *All orders issued by the clerk should state for what specific purpose they are drawn.*

74. PAYMENT OF TEACHERS.—It is the duty of the township clerk to draw the requisite orders for the payment of teachers only when each of the following documents are presented to him: 1. A written statement of the amount due, certified by any two of the local directors of the proper sub-district. 2. A legal certificate of qualification, or a true copy thereof, from the proper board of school examiners, covering the *entire time* of the teacher's services. Section 45. 3. A full and complete term report made out in accordance with the instructions of the Commissioner of Common Schools. Section 18. Each of these three documents must be carefully filed by the clerk, and handed over to his successor in office. Supplemental section 8. An assistant teacher who has not a legal certificate, can not be paid through an order drawn in favor of another teacher who has a certificate, nor can an uncertificated teacher who is employed as a *substitute*, receive pay through another teacher. Section 45 provides that "*no person shall be employed as a teacher*" who has not a legal certificate. It is the duty of the township clerk to refuse to draw an order for the payment of money from the school fund when he has satisfactory evidence that any portion of such money is to be used for the payment of a teacher not possessing a legal certificate. A legal certificate must cover the *entire time* of the teacher's services, and such certificate can neither directly nor indirectly be made to legalize another teacher's services.

When a teacher files a copy of a certificate with a township clerk, the clerk should record the fact, with the date, across the back of the original certificate, thus: True copy filed with the clerk of — township, — county, Ohio, — 186—. — —, Tp. Clk.

**75. TOWNSHIP SCHOOL FUND.**—All school funds arising from a township tax, and not levied by a vote of electors nor to sustain teachers in high schools, may, at the discretion of the township board, be divided into two separate funds: a "*tuition fund*" (for prolonging the schools), and a "*school-house and contingent fund*." This division of the township school fund should usually be made in accordance with the annual estimates certified to the auditor, but when the board of education find that such estimates were not properly made, they may reapportion such township funds, transferring, for example, so much of the contingent fund to the tuition fund as they may deem necessary.

N. B. When the township school funds have been divided by the board, and one portion set apart for prolonging the schools and the other portion for school-house and contingent purposes, *they must be so disbursed by the township treasurer*. He has no authority to pay an order drawn for the payment of a teacher from the contingent fund, nor *vice versa*.

**76. APPORTIONMENT AND DISBURSEMENT OF SCHOOL FUNDS.**—All school funds coming into the hands of the township treasurer must be distributed and disbursed as follows:

1. Moneys derived from the State tax must be distributed to the several sub-districts and fractional parts of joint sub-districts in proportion to the enumeration of youth, and applied *only* to the payment of teachers.

2. Moneys arising from the rent of, or the interest on the proceeds of the sale of section sixteen or other school lands (called irreducible school funds), must be distributed to the sub-districts to which such funds belong, and applied *only* to the payment of teachers in such sub-districts.

3. Moneys derived from the township tax and *set apart* by the board for the continuation of the schools, must be so distributed, that the smaller sub-districts "*shall be able to continue their schools the same length of time as the larger sub-districts*." In other words, such moneys must be so distributed that the schools in the several sub-districts may be sustained an equal number of months during each school year.

4. Moneys derived from the township tax and reserved by the board for sustaining teachers in central or high schools, must be applied to that purpose.

5. Moneys derived from the township tax and estimated and levied for the support of joint sub-district schools, must be paid over to the proper treasurer (section 16), and applied exclusively to the support of such joint sub-district schools.

6. All other school funds must be applied, under the direction of the board, in procuring school-house sites, building, repairing and furnishing school-houses, and in making such other provisions for the schools of the several sub-districts as may, in the opinion of the board, be necessary.

N. B. Inasmuch as the larger sub-districts receive more of the State funds than the smaller sub-districts, the smaller are entitled to proportionally more of the township tuition fund than the larger. If, however, the larger sub-districts contain two schools, or otherwise actually require more tuition money than the smaller sub-districts, to sustain their schools an equal length of time, they are entitled to more. The larger sub-districts may, in some instances, be obliged to pay higher wages than the smaller. The intention of the law is to require boards of education to provide the necessary funds, *all the circumstances being duly considered*, for continuing the schools of the several sub-districts an equal length of time. In case the township tuition fund is distributed by the board illegally, complaint should be made to the State Commissioner of Schools, who is required, by section 52, to secure the distribution of all school funds "according to law."

**77. FORFEITURE OF STATE SCHOOL FUNDS.**—A township or separate school district forfeits its annual share of the school fund arising from the State tax, if the board of education of such township or separate district fail to make the necessary provision for continuing the schools therein in operation, *on an average*, at least twenty-four weeks during the year. If the several sub-district

schools of a township are, hereafter, kept in operation less than twenty-four weeks, the board of education must be able to show (1) that the necessary funds were provided; or (2) in case such necessary funds were not provided, that the annual estimates for school purposes made by them and certified to the county auditor were as great as *the law authorizes* (three mills in townships). If the highest local levy *allowed by law* is made, but does not provide sufficient funds to continue the schools twenty-four weeks each year, the failure is clearly not the *fault of the board*, if the township is properly sub-districted, and, hence, *no funds will be forfeited*. A sub-district can not forfeit its share of the State funds, except in common with the other sub-districts of a township. The term "separate school district" is used in the school law to designate a city or incorporated village which, with the territory annexed for school purposes, is organized and governed, as to schools, separate from and independent of the township in which such city or village may be situated. The provision of the law relating to a forfeiture of State school funds, applies only to entire townships and to cities and incorporated villages.

It is the duty of local directors to continue the schools in operation in their respective sub-districts at least twenty-four weeks each year, whether or not the township board have supplied the necessary funds. See section 6; Opin. 15.

78. **SURPLUS TUITION FUNDS.**—If the local directors of any sub-district fail, without good reasons for doing so, to continue their school in operation each school year until all the tuition funds apportioned to such sub-district are exhausted, the township board may reapportion so much of such surplus funds as was derived from the township tax, but they can not take from a sub-district any portion of State funds that may be unexpended. The board may, however, in their next apportionment of the township tuition fund, take into account the fact that a sub-district has to its credit a surplus of State funds which were not expended during the preceding school year. The reapportionment of township tuition funds, if done at all, should be made at the annual meeting in September, or soon thereafter.

79. **TEACHER'S BOARD.**—There is no legal authority for stipulating in a contract with a teacher that he shall "*board around*," since such a contract can not be enforced on the inhabitants of a sub-district. A patron of a common school can not be obliged to board a teacher gratuitously. Local directors have full authority to employ teachers and include their board in the wages agreed upon, and the township board must make the necessary provisions for fulfilling such contracts.

But there is no serious legal objection to the custom of having teachers "*board around*," provided all the inhabitants of a sub-district agree to it, and provided, also, the custom is uniform throughout all the sub-districts in the township. If the wages of teachers in some sub-districts include the cost of their board, but not in others, the expense of sustaining the schools would rest very unequally upon the inhabitants of a township. It is desirable that the teachers in all the sub-districts should "*board around*," which the township board have no power to require, or else all should board themselves. If, however, the inhabitants of a sub-district wish to sustain their schools *longer* than the other sub-districts, there can be no objection to their boarding the teachers as a gratuity, to secure this end.

The custom of teachers "*boarding around*" had its origin in a desire to diminish the amount of rate-bills which were formerly assessed on the patrons of a school to defray its expenses. But the system of rate-bills was abolished in 1853, and the custom of "*boarding around*" may, with great propriety, be abolished also.

80. **PRIVATE SCHOOLS.**—Boards of education have no authority to appropriate funds for the payment of the tuition of pupils in schools which are not under their exclusive control; nor can one dollar of the school fund, under any pretense, be appropriated toward the providing of accommodations for such a school.



## Editorial Department.

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A PRESSURE of official duties will prevent our attempting the preparation of practical articles on professional topics before the March number. We shall then and thereafter devote considerable attention to this department of the MONTHLY.

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### TO TEACHERS AND FRIENDS OF EDUCATION.

In compliance with what seems to be a plain duty, I have concluded to enter again upon the two-fold work of editing and publishing the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY and superintending Teachers' Institutes. This enterprise, it will be remembered, I undertook in 1861, just as the late terrific civil war burst upon the country. It will also be remembered that although more than half of the educational journals of the country were wrecked and institute effort almost wholly suspended, I was enabled by the generous assistance of the teachers of the State (than whom none have a nobler record), and with some pecuniary sacrifice, to carry forward the enterprise undertaken until November, 1863, when I was called by appointment to the office of Commissioner of Common Schools.

The success of the MONTHLY during those terrible years of war is believed to be without a parallel among educational journals. Its circulation steadily increased until the close of 1864, when it had reached over 3,000. This result was attained without traveling agents and without the publisher's urging the support of the magazine upon teachers either as a matter of pecuniary interest or of professional duty. Others may and, in some instances, doubtless did use these motives in canvassing for subscribers, since the suspension of the MONTHLY would unquestionably have been felt widely and seriously. But my aim was to make its pages bear so directly and practically upon the every-day duties of teachers and the vital interests of the schools, that there should be a *demand* for it.

In resuming its publication, I shall strive earnestly to make the MONTHLY equal to the grand opportunity for usefulness now before it. There has never been a time in the history of our school system when a first-class educational journal could exert a wider or more potent influence than at the present time. The war has closed, and a new era in education has dawned upon the country. The cause of universal education which underlies and sustains universal freedom, is now widely recognized as one of the vital interests of the nation. Its new and wonderful progress is full of hope and promise. On every hand there is an earnest inquiry for truer methods and better means of school instruction.

Teachers are reading and thinking upon subjects connected with their high calling as they have never read and thought before. The evidence is cheering that we have entered upon a period of unusual professional inquiry and consequent advancement. "Progress" is the rallying cry of the profession.

Under these circumstances may I not reasonably expect such an increase in the circulation of the MONTHLY as will enable me to continue to devote my time and whatever of ability or influence I may possess, to the advancement and strengthening of the educational interests of the State? To this end an addition of at least *one thousand* subscribers to the number secured last year, is needed; and since the circulation of the past year was secured without special effort, notwithstanding the absorbing excitements of the early months of the year, I feel quite sure that I may fully rely on the well-tried professional spirit of Ohio teachers, and enter confidently upon my twice-chosen work. Dear reader, what assistance are you willing to give in securing the requisite number of subscribers?

I feel a special interest in the success of the new institute system, and hope to see it become a part of a well-arranged and efficient system of professional instruction and training for the teachers of the State. For the establishment of such a system I shall earnestly and hopefully labor. In a matter so fundamental and vital as the supplying of her schools with well-qualified teachers, Ohio should be the peer of her sister States.

The first step in this great work of professional advancement is to make the teachers' institutes, now provided for by law, efficient and practical. They are and must continue to be the chief available agency for placing professional training and instruction within reach of all our teachers. They should be made to bear directly and potently upon the instruction and management of the schools, and to this end all who feel an interest in the elevation and advancement of the schools, must lend a helping hand.

I have already made several engagements to assist in conducting Teachers' Institutes during the present year, and am willing to devote a considerable portion of my time to this important work. Applications should be made at as early a day as possible, so that all necessary arrangements may be made.

COLUMBUS, O., Jan. 10, 1866.

E. E. WHITE

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### S L A N D E R O U S.

One of the chief purposes for which educational journals are established and maintained is to elevate and ennoble the profession of teaching; to secure for it a higher public appreciation and regard—in short, to make it honorable in the eyes of all men. In the discharge of this function it is legitimate and proper to point out the defects and shortcomings of teachers, and to urge upon them the importance of higher aims and attainments. All this may and should be done with plainness and frankness.

But an educational journal has no right to slander teachers, or to hold them up to public contempt and ridicule. This work should be left to that class of scribblers who have a preemption claim to the occupation. Besides the business is already overdone, and promises a very poor return to those who engage in it.

We have been led to this line of remark by the perusal of an editorial article in the December number of the *American Educational Monthly*, entitled "The Dishonesty of Teachers," in which teachers as a class are charged with dishonesty and fraud in money affairs. To show that we do not use too strong language, we quote from the article as follows:

"Here it is in type—the dishonesty of teachers! The words mean more than they may seem to imply. The 'soft impeachment' is not to be construed into a charge of mere disingenuousness. \* \* \* It is as a business man that the teacher evinces dishonesty. True, a swindling pedagogue would be somewhat of a curiosity, even in this age of problematical rectitude, when the old saw, 'Honesty is the best policy,' seems to have been reset, and the popular sentiment may be rendered, *Policy is the best honesty*.

"The teacher's dishonesty is of a negative kind. But if two negatives are equal to an affirmative, surely a dozen acts of negative dishonesty are tantamount to positive fraud. Now, unfortunately, in the business relations of teachers, nothing is more common than this qualified, negative knavery. The teacher's promise, in relation to money matters, is not to be relied upon. He assures you that he will 'pay that little bill' on a certain day, but you might as safely depend on the man in the moon for a settlement. Take his note—it is not worth a school copy-book."

It is not often that we are called upon to defend teachers against such wholesale vilification as this, and the fact that it emanates from an educational journal aspiring to a national character, but adds to its gravity. We are, therefore, in duty bound to pronounce the accusation slanderous.

There may be many dishonest persons in the ranks of teachers—many careless persons in financial affairs; but we deny the "soft impeachment" that teachers as a class are more dishonest, even negatively, than other people. On the contrary, we affirm that a teacher's promise in relation to money matters is not only as good as that of people in general, but, his lean purse considered, we think it is a little better. Indeed, it is our belief that teachers as a class will compare favorably with any other equally numerous class of our people, whether in honor or honesty.

We do not claim that the simple fact that a person is a teacher justifies an undue eagerness to palm off wares upon him for a "promise to pay," or to enter his name upon a subscription list on the same easy condition. The millennium has not yet come even among school-masters, and the publisher who acts upon such a supposition will sooner or later evince bilious symptoms.

Nor do we wish to be an apologist for remissness in money matters. The teacher should make good his promises; he should be rigidly honest. He owes this to himself and to the profession. But what we claim is, that the remissness and even dishonesty of a few teachers should not be made the basis of sweeping charges against the profession as a whole.

We fear that our contemporary has a weakness in the direction of hasty and sweeping statements. As evidence of this, we pass back a few numbers to an editorial headed "Superlatives and School Books," in which "educational journals" and "educational editors" are all condemned as "weak and time-serving" in reviewing school-books. They are charged with heaping superlatives

upon all books published, good, bad, and indifferent, and, by inference, for a price.

We thought this, at the time, decidedly cool, coming as it did from a journal published by school-book publishers, and to some extent, at least, as their advertising medium! We took the pains to count their own pages of advertising which the publishers had in the very issue in which these charges were made against other journals, and found the number to be *thirteen*. We do not say that a journal thus published may not be *par excellence* an impartial and independent reviewer of school-books, but it will strike most persons that its setting up such a claim is not over modest.

For ourselves we are quite willing to compare "superlatives" with our New York critic, and to let others judge between us respecting our relative "independence of position and freedom of expression." Our brethren can speak for themselves.

We wish every co-worker in the great educational field abundant success; and, if it will not be regarded as in bad taste for a native Buckeye to give advice to a Metropolitan, we would say to our national contemporary, use a few more adverbial *qualifiers*. Adverbs have a close relation to truthfulness, and are not inconsistent with courtesy.

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### TEACH WITH AN OBJECT.

There are yet too many of our teachers who look forward to no definite point to be reached as the result of their course of instruction. The causes of this are various. Some from defective culture have no powers of generalization, and are incapable of settling upon any general system of training whose fruit can only be reached in the remote future. They can not look beyond the present, and work for to-day alone. Others not more inefficient, but more criminal, from indolence and indifference to every thing connected with their profession, except its salary, drone along from week to week, and quarter to quarter, in a from hand to mouth sort of way, with a happy unconcern as to any good or evil that is likely to arise from their course. If they seem to satisfy the people of their district with the result of their labors, they too are abundantly satisfied. Yet another class of teachers are those young apprentices to the law, medicine, or divinity, many of whom are not without talent and learning, but who submit to the conditions of their work as a repulsive burden, only to be endured for the sake of the money which it brings, and which is to enable them to set up business in more congenial pursuits.

It is but little wonder when such as these take upon themselves a calling hedged around by such weighty responsibilities, that results most unsatisfactory only, should be obtained; that our people who have been taught that intelligence and virtue are almost synonymous, should too late discover that arithmetic, geography and grammar are no wondrous talismans to protect from spirits of

evil; that there is a long procession even of those who possess these, moving steadily and swiftly along that dark and terrible road of vice that leads through the grog-shops, the gambling-hell, and other dens of infamy, down to inevitable and woeful destruction. And seeing this, they are led, too frequently, to undervalue the potency of education to save. If education consisted in that knowledge alone which is found in text-books, they would be correct in their estimate; such knowledge possesses no great saving power. But these and other branches are not education; they are but the humble tools by which it is to be builded. The vast majority of men are content with the tools, and never use them for the purpose of building up a noble manhood.

And this nobility of manhood, a manhood in which all the powers of mind and soul shall be harmoniously developed, should be made the polar star toward which all the teacher's instruction should tend, from the a-b-c to the highest reach of science and thought. Fixing his eye steadily upon this, looking neither to the right nor the left, setting every day's recitations into the current that bears toward it, he will find himself and his pupils rising, slowly it may be, but surely, to a higher plane of thought and feeling, the certain result of a noble purpose. Then will the dry and repulsive skeleton of text-book knowledge be clothed upon with symmetry and beauty. His road will not always be found a path of flowers, but often of thorns rather; but the longer it is followed, the less flinty it will be found, until it emerges in a way, broad, smooth, and firm, for confident feet to walk in.

Many earnest and conscientious teachers will find themselves cramped in their endeavors for this highest good by their own limited attainments. But no one should give up in discouragement. As a celebrated man has said "all knowledge is possible to him who knows how to read." To know how to read is to be able to put one's self in communication with the great and good of all ages and countries. It is the key that unlocks the treasure-houses of literature, science, and art. Let no poor soul cry out, "I have no time to read!" It is a cry of weakness. The men who have figured most actively in the world's history, have often been both great readers and writers. If the teacher can find no other time, let him, like Southey, read as he walks. Besides, there are few occupations that affords more time for literary culture than the teacher's. He has certain hours and days that he can always count upon for such purposes. His reading, however, should not be without discrimination. From the vast world of books, he should select such as will make him a wiser, a truer man, and stronger for his work. Having thus done, haply he shall create such a flame in his own soul as will kindle a divine spark in the souls of his pupils.

In addition, the world that lies about us is, to the thoughtful mind, a world of schoolmasters, teaching high, holy, and beautiful lessons. It verifies the poet's declaration that there are tongues in trees, books in running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in every thing; and he anoints the blind eyes of his pupils, so that they too read with clear vision these divine lessons.

J. H.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**PERSONAL.**—E. E. WHITE, Commissioner of Common Schools, has been elected Superintendent of the schools of Portsmouth, Ohio, at a salary of \$2,500 a year—several leading citizens uniting with the Board in guaranteeing this salary. Mr. WHITE had charge of the Portsmouth schools for four years, removing from that city to this in 1861, and his recall at the largest salary paid any Superintendent in the State, is a very handsome compliment. He will, however, probably decline the position, and re-enter upon the publishing of the *Ohio Educational Monthly* and the Institute work. His term of office as School Commissioner expires on the 11th of February.—*Morning Journal*.

It is not often that we permit any complimentary reference to us to appear in these pages; but the transaction recorded in the above paragraph, is an endorsement so gratifying that we beg to be excused for its insertion. It comes from a generous, whole-souled people, whose good-will and confidence we both respect and appreciate. We have reluctantly declined the position, regretting, most of all, that our lot is not to be cast among the many true and tried friends who are ready to bid us welcome.

While our pen is personally inclined, we wish to thank our friends in the east who have invited us to positions worthy of our acceptance and ambition. We may be making a mistake, but duty seems to point in the direction we have chosen.

**NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.**—The first step in Congress looking toward the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, has been taken. Mr. DONNELLY, of Minnesota, has introduced into the House the following resolution which was agreed to:

“WHEREAS, Republican institutions can find permanent safety only upon the basis of the universal intelligence of the people, and whereas the great disasters which have afflicted the nation, and desolated one-half of its territory, are traceable, in a great degree, to the absence of common schools and general education among the people of the lately rebellious States: Therefore,

“Resolved, That the joint committee on Reconstruction be instructed to inquire into the expediency of establishing in this capital a National Bureau of Education, whose duty it shall be to enforce education without regard to race or color, upon the population of all such States, as shall fall below a standard to be established by Congress, and to inquire whether such a Bureau should not be made an essential and permanent part of any system of reconstruction.”

The Illinois State Association has spoken and has been heard at Washington. Why does not Ohio speak? At the Cincinnati meeting a committee was appointed to memorialize Congress upon this subject. Bro. HARTSHORN, where is said memorial? A committee was also appointed by the National Association. A united, vigorous effort will secure the much-needed legislation. Now is the golden opportunity.

**WARREN COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.**—The meeting at Waynesville on the 8th and 9th days of December, was one of the largest and most spirited local educational gatherings it has ever been our privilege to attend. The teachers of the county turned out in force, if not *en masse*, and the citizens of the village and vicinity manifested a most commendable interest in the exercises. The church was crowded day and evening.

Mr. HANCOCK, of Cincinnati, gave two excellent lectures. Mr. BUTTS, of Cincinnati, gave an exposition of the methods of teaching Arithmetic in the Cincinnati schools. Mr. RICHARDSON, of Cincinnati, Mr. MCCLINTOCK, of Waynesville, Mr. FINCH, of Franklin, Mr. TUFT, of Maineville, and others, also gave instructive and

valuable lectures, and topics of practical interest were discussed. The published proceedings fill five columns in the *Western Star*.

Warren county has a school record second to no other county in the State. In wages paid teachers and in length of time schools are continued, the county leads all others—Hamilton county excepted. We were pleased to learn that in several townships, a school visitor is appointed to visit the schools, counsel with teachers, examine classes, deliver public lectures, etc. The Association meets again at Morrow on the second Saturday in January.

**HOLIDAY INSTITUTES.**—We have as yet received returns from but few of the Institutes held during the Holidays. The one at Findlay was largely attended, and was a decided success. Instruction was given by Mr. NESTLERODE, of Fostoria, and by Messrs. MILLER and VANHORN, of Findlay. Evening lectures were given by Messrs. NESTLERODE and MILLER. A resolution was adopted recommending county superintendents. The MONTHLY was not forgotten as is shown by a good list of subscribers.

The Institute at Cambridge was favored with the instructions of Col. DE WOLF, Supt. of the Toledo Schools, and Prof. KIDD. The following evidence that their labors were acceptable has been sent us by the Secretary :

“Resolved, That we as an Institute present to Prof. KIDD and Col. DE WOLF our thanks for the plain, practical, and highly interesting exercises with which they favored us.”

The Institute at Bellaire was fortunate in securing the services of Pres. ANDREWS, of Marietta, and Mr. COWDERY, of Sandusky. Mr. BURTT, of Pittsburg, and Mr. RICHARDSON, of Cincinnati, also gave acceptable instruction.

The Institute at West Union was a good one. Profs. TAPPAN and YOUNG, of Ohio University, were the instructors.

The Institute at Celina was well attended, and spirited. Home instructors and lecturers were relied upon. Mr. DE FORD is an earnest worker in the good cause.

**CINCINNATI.**—We have received a copy of the Annual Report for the year ending June 30, 1865. We have not time this month to make an analysis or even to give a summary of the statistics it contains. It shows that the course of the schools is onward and upward.—The Saturday Normal Institute which was held during the first three months of the current year, was an experiment, resulting in much good to the schools. It strikes us that a good Normal or Training School would be a valuable addition to the schools of the city.—The School Board has appointed a committee to memorialize the Legislature to obtain authority to assess two and a half mills school tax instead of two mills as now prescribed by law.

**MASSACHUSETTS.**—The State Teachers' Association held their twenty-first annual meeting at Boston, commencing October 12. The experiment of changing the time from “Thanksgiving week” to an earlier date, proved a perfect success. *Twenty-five hundred* teachers of the Old Bay State were present, school committees throughout the State generally consenting to the closing of the schools to permit their attendance. The exercises were pleasant, profitable, and spirited throughout. The subjects brought prominently before the Association were: A National System of Education, Methods of Teaching, Spelling, Short Time System, Teaching the Syntax of the Latin and Greek Languages, A proper Course of Study, etc. Such an immense gathering of the teachers of the State, with the consequent enthusiasm and *esprit du corps* which it must have awakened, can not fail to give a strong impulse to the work of education in that State.—JAMES S. EATON, Principal of the English Department of Phillips' Academy, Andover, died Oct. 10. He was a very successful educator, and the author of the popular series of Arithmetics which bears his name.

INDIANA.—A normal school law, substantially the same as the one proposed a year ago, has been enacted by the Legislature at its present session. How long before Ohio will take this important step for the advancement of her school interests?

THE MICHIGAN TEACHER.—We welcome the appearance of this creditable organ of the profession in our sister State. It is edited with good taste and ability by WILLIAM H. PAYNE, of Niles, and C. L. WHITNEY, of Dowagiac, who alone assume the responsibility of its publication. We hope that their moderate anticipations will be more than realized, and that the *Teacher* may long shine as a candle set in a sure place. It gave us pain to chronicle the suspension of the *Journal of Education* in 1861. It will be a shame if the teachers of Michigan permit that history to be repeated in the case of their present beautifully-printed organ.

MICHIGAN.—Prof. A. S. WELCH has resigned the position of Principal of the State Normal School which he has so long and ably filled, and has removed to Florida with a view of improving his impaired health. Hon. J. M. GREGORY, late State Superintendent of Public Instruction, now President of Kalamazoo College, has been invited to the position thus made vacant. We do not know another educator in Michigan so well fitted to be Prof. WELCH'S successor.

WHAT'S THE MATTER?—We have not received a number of the *Vermont School Journal* since March. It commenced the year with a new editor and a new publisher. Have their hearts failed them?

We have also missed the *Conn. Common School Journal* since July. Can it be that ill has at last befallen this old and honored journal? Friend NORTHEED, here is our hand. Have the teachers of Connecticut permitted your purse to become empty?

The *Kansas Educational Journal* for September and October, a double number, has just reached us. This looks like a desperate struggle to reach shore, but the greatly improved appearance of the magazine shows that it is determined to merit long life, whatever may be its fate. Kansas is full of pluck, and we trust its teachers have the same spirit.

RHODE ISLAND.—The pluckiest of all the State school journals is the *R. I. Schoolmaster*. It comes through the war improved in appearance, and apparently as full of years as it is of honors. Truly, the spirit of BECCA WILLIAMS still lives in "Little Rhody."

WILBERFORCE UNIVERSITY.—The trustees of this institution are making an effort to raise the necessary funds with which to rebuild the college edifice. The buildings, worth \$50,000, and insured for only \$8,000, were burned to the ground in April last by an incendiary. We hope that the efforts of the colored people to provide themselves with the facilities for obtaining a higher education, will be crowned with complete success.

A POST-SCRIPT.—Our "Up-North" contributor sends the following happy post-script to his excellent letter in this number:

"P. S.—Our Board of Education have, since the foregoing was written, increased the salaries of our Superintendent to \$2,100; the Principals of our High Schools to \$1,800; the Principals of our Grammar or District Schools to \$1,500; also, Mr. Norton's of the Central High School, to \$1,500.  
Y. T."

Our advice to other Boards of Education in the State is, to go and do likewise.

BENJ. B. STEWART, first assistant in the First Intermediate School of Cincinnati, has resigned to connect himself with Nelson's Commercial College.



GEN'L S. F. CARY has assumed the entire supervision and direction of the Ohio Female College, the corps of teachers remaining unchanged. We learn that President ANDERSON has proved himself a most efficient man for the place, and that the institution is in complete working order.

W. R. WOOLMAN, for more than twelve years connected with the Public Schools of Cincinnati, has resigned to go into business.

## BOOK NOTICES.

CHANDLER'S NEW GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS. By Z. M. CHANDLER. Published by Beer & Hurd, Zanesville, O. Pp. 228.

This book, kindly sent me by the publishers, has been for months in my possession. I have occasionally used it in reference to some topics. I have shown it to some of my colleagues and to my more intelligent and reflecting pupils. All have approved of its execution: they thought it better than any other grammar of the same size and grade that they were acquainted with. With this opinion, my own entirely coincides.

To be sure, if I had space enough to write a full review of it, as I did in my letter to the publishers, I could allude to several points of higher or lesser importance, on which I differ from it, and, indeed, from all other American grammars, which have not yet caught the spirit of logical analysis that has long characterized our grammars on the other side of the Atlantic. There grammarians no longer follow servilely in the footsteps of Lindley Murray, one of the honored pioneers in grammatical inquiry, and who did a noble work in his day, but whose labors ought now to be superseded by those of more philosophical inquirers into the laws and characteristics of the common language of England and America.

Mr. Chandler, like other American grammarians, clings to the old forms imported (*forced* I would be inclined to say) from the grammars of an entirely different class of languages—the inflected or terminational, such as Latin or Greek. Their common fault, as I have expressed it before in this journal, is, that they persist in viewing the etymological part of English grammar by light refracted through the false and distorting medium of the classical languages.

The merit of the American grammars consists in the analysis of the sentence. In that respect, our English grammars were greatly inferior to such works as Greene's Analysis. I do not know what progress in this direction may have been made since I left England. But it is in the classification of the various parts of speech, of the modes and tenses of verbs, in a clear and forcible representation of the genius or characteristics of the English tongue, that such works as Dr. Crombie's, Ch. Connon's, John Mulligan's, Latham's, etc., are far in advance of similar works in this country.

But to return to Chandler's grammar. I prefer it to others of its class, because

1. It contains fewer of those false views that I have alluded to, though, here and there, the cloven foot shows itself, and the author speaks, for instance, of *putting* a noun in the objective case, in order to express some relation to a verb or a preposition, as if some special manipulation were needed for the purpose, some changes of form similar to what takes place in a Greek or Latin noun.

2. Each section begins with a synoptical table, exhibiting the whole subject in a clear, condensed form. I may find fault with some of the arrangements; I may think they could be made more logical, more consonant with the *facts* of the language, which are the true and only foundation of all grammatical knowledge; but the principle itself is excellent, and is one of the characteristic features of this grammar.

8. The syntactical analysis of sentences is represented by simple and clear diagrams.

Here let due honor be ascribed to Clarke, to whom we are indebted, I believe, for the happy thought of making such analysis tangible, as it were, by diagrams. But Chandler's are superior. There is, however, a still simpler form, introduced, I think, into the school of Salem, Columbiana county, by my dear friend Reuben McMillen, once its beloved Superintendent, now of Youngstown.

4. It contains a judicious selection of model sentences and exercises.

5. With respect to specimens of false grammar for correction, I would respectfully suggest to the author, that in the next edition, which I hope the increasing popularity of his work will soon render necessary, he should substitute for *made-up* instances of bad grammar, quotations from popular American authors exhibiting similar aberrations or eccentricities. I have pages of such instances, taken from the most popular English writers of this and the preceding generation. From the little I have done in collecting similar specimens from popular American authors, I think it would be an easy task to accumulate a sufficient number. These, I believe, would strike the young learner more forcibly than sentences which he knows or suspects were manufactured for his own special edification, in order to kindle a virtuous indignation in his youthful bosom. It would, besides, serve to impress upon his mind the useful warning—never to allow himself to write hastily and carelessly; for if gifted minds, through momentary inadvertence, have let such mistakes slip from their pens, marring the beauty of their thoughts and language, how much more does it behoove *us*, common mortals, who can not plead the lofty compensation of genius in extenuation of our offense, to pay scrupulous attention to the correction of whatever we venture to write for the perusal of others, lest our meaning be obscured or distorted, and the taste of our readers be offended by clumsy or ungrammatical forms of expression! T. E. S.

EATON'S QUESTIONS ON THE PRINCIPLES OF ARITHMETIC. Taggard & Thompson, Publishers, 29 Cornhill, Boston.

This little work is something new. It contains an admirably selected and well classified series of questions on the principles of arithmetic. It will be found of great assistance to examiners and teachers in preparing questions for the examination of classes; to students in testing their familiarity with the principles of arithmetic; and to classes in reviewing what they have gone over. One great merit of the questions is, that they are adapted to any series of text-books, being designed to develop the subject rather than to afford a basis for reviewing some particular text-book. The price of the book (12 cts. per copy or \$9 per hundred) places it within reach of all teachers.

AFFIXES IN THEIR ORIGIN AND APPLICATION, exhibiting the Etymologic Structure of English Words. By S. S. HALDEMAN, A.M. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

This work, the production of a ripe scholar,—an ethnologist as well as linguist,—supplies a want long felt and acknowledged in our higher institutions of learning. Except this, there is no treatise on affixes, worthy to be called such, accessible to the American student. There may be some difference of opinion with regard to its adaptability as a class-book,—but those having a taste for etymological studies can not afford to be without it, and no teacher of the English or any other language can make it anything else than an indispensable *vade mecum*, when he knows and appreciates its value. It is not a reckless "catalogue of guesses," but the matured product of widely-extended, laborious research. It is thorough, exhaustive, well-classified, and, in wide contrast with some school-books we have seen, its typography is beautiful. We trust it will meet with a large sale in the Great West.

T. W. H.

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UNION OR GRADED SCHOOLS.

[The following is from the forthcoming Report of the Commissioner of Common Schools:]

I regret that I am unable to report the exact number of separate or special districts in the State in which the schools are organized on the graded plan. The number of separate districts is 335, only fifteen of which employ a single teacher. In all the rest graded schools should now be established; but the returns indicate that a few of the smaller districts have not yet adopted the graded system. Some of these are unfortunately in possession of school-houses built to accommodate but one teacher and located in different parts of the district, which fact is erroneously supposed to necessitate unclassified schools. But in most of the incorporated villages, and in all of the towns and cities, the schools are more or less thoroughly classified and graded.

The very great advantages of graded over ungraded schools, both in efficiency and economy, are also leading to the organization of graded schools in township sub-districts favored with a sufficiently dense population. The number of sub-district graded schools in townships, as reported, is 124. Whenever a sub-district is or may be made large enough to require two or more

teachers, the school should be divided into two or more grades or departments, and as thoroughly classified as possible. The true policy in the townships is to enlarge rather than divide sub-districts, and the principle of gradation should be introduced wherever it is practicable.

The superiority of graded over ungraded schools is no longer a mooted question among intelligent educators. It is one of those facts in education which both theory and experience have settled beyond reasonable doubt. What the very nature of the system shows must be true, its practical success uniformly confirms.

Last year the Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania addressed letters to different State Superintendents, propounding questions relative to the expensiveness, success, and popularity of graded schools in their respective States. He states in his report that the responses were, without exception, decidedly in favor of such schools. Hon. J. B. Chapin, of Rhode Island, wrote: "Their success has exceeded the highest expectations of their warmest friends." Hon. David N. Camp, of Connecticut, wrote: "Graded schools in Connecticut have been eminently successful, and I can not now recall a single instance of failure on account of the system." Hon. Henry Barnard, of the same State, wrote: "It has been now for nearly thirty years a cardinal feature of our educational plans and labors to establish a system of graded schools in every village and district where there were children enough to have two teachers, and I don't know, or can not recall, a single instance where parents or the public have gone back to the ungraded district schools or to the miscellaneous condition of public and private schools." Hon. J. D. Philbrick, of Massachusetts, remarked: "I have been well acquainted with the system of this State for upwards of twenty years, and I may say, without fear of contradiction, that if there is any part of the public school system which has been peculiarly successful, it is the plan of Graded Schools."

The testimony thus presented is fully corroborated by the experience of every State that has tried the graded system. In this State I am not aware that a single school district which has once organized graded schools, has ever gone back to miscellaneous schools; nor is such a result possible until the people become insane.

But while *all* our graded schools are more efficient than they would be if ungraded, and while a majority of these schools are making satisfactory progress, it is but the truth to say that in some localities they are crippled from injudicious management. I have only space to allude to three particulars from which some of the graded schools of the State are suffering, viz: 1. A want of efficient supervision. 2. Inferior and inadequate High Schools. 3. Party spirit in school elections.

1. *A want of efficient supervision,*

Practical wisdom places every business enterprise involving a division of labor and the employment of several workmen, under intelligent oversight and direction. Railroads, mines, iron-works, and manufactories of all kinds, are watched over by superintendents intrusted with the duty of so directing the details of the business that each particular process may be done in all respects as it should be.

Nor are business men indifferent respecting the qualifications of those whom they intrust with the supervisory care of important interests. On the contrary, special and eminent fitness for the trust to be exercised, is demanded. A blacksmith is not intrusted with the direction of a cotton-mill, nor a wheelwright with the care of a watch-factory. Such a course would be little better than financial suicide, since the skill and experience of the superintendent in the particular business placed under his direction, greatly determines the success of such business. Here is the explanation of the great care exercised in the selection of superintendents for establishments which by complicated processes manufacture valuable products from costly materials. The annual dividends of the company soon demonstrates the value of that oversight which brings to every detail of the business the highest skill and experience.

What universal experience proves necessary for the successful management of business enterprises, is equally important in the management of a *system* of education, and especially a *system* of graded schools. Such a system is more complicated and different than any of our ordinary business enterprises. Nor has it the peculiar inherent and self-regulating power. Deprived of guidance of a superintending eye and hand, it necessarily makes indifferent progress. Its processes extend throu'

years, and the material wrought upon is constantly changing both in capacity and quality. Processes that would be correct and fruitful the fifth year of the course, are positively vicious the first; and, besides, all that is done in any one year must be properly related to what has been done previously and what is to be done in the future. Especially must each step be so taken as to be a fit preparation for the next succeeding step. Just here is the difficulty in the management of a system of graded schools. The work of instruction and training is divided into parts, and each of these several parts intrusted to different teachers. As in all divided labor, a failure to do well any one part mars the final result. There must be a unity and harmony in the instruction of such a system of education. But without intelligent direction and training no corps of teachers can thus labor. There must of necessity be much of needless repetition, of serious omission, and of improper method—in short, there must be a want of system.

But in education there must be something more than system. Each process must be guided by the principles of mental and moral philosophy, and must accord with the teachings of experience. Hence it is that a system of education to be in the highest degree successful, must be directed by a mind that comprehends its aim and scope, its philosophy, its processes, its practical details.

These observations and principles explain, in part, why it is that the graded schools of some of our towns and, I regret to add, cities are making comparatively so little progress. They are practically without intelligent supervision. In too many instances the nominal superintendents are simply teachers of the highest department with neither the time nor the authority to make the instruction of the lower grades efficient and thorough. About all that is attempted is a general direction of the mechanism of the school so as to avoid too great friction. In three or four of the smaller cities mistaken views of economy have led to the temporary abandonment of supervision. The result in each case has been a decline in the schools both in efficiency and popularity. The observations of another year fully confirm the statement made in my last report, that there is not a city or town in the State in which the essential agency of supervision is ignored, that has, comparatively speaking, efficient schools; and, other things

being equal, *the thoroughness of the supervision of a school system is every where a measure of its efficiency and success.*

A sad experience is also teaching some of our school boards that the successful supervision of a system of schools requires higher qualifications than a mere knowledge of the manual of arms, to borrow a figure from the military art. A Superintendent must be an *educator*, in the full sense of that term. He must not only know what is desirable and attainable in each grade of school and at each stage of instruction, but he must be an adept in the use of those tests by means of which such progress can be measured. He must be competent to instruct and train the more inexperienced teachers under him, and so to map out and direct the entire work of instruction that it may be a complete and harmonious whole, having not only a beginning and an end, but a beginning that looks toward the end. In short, the supervision of schools is a distinct profession, and one that requires high and special qualifications. At least, there should be at the head of every school system practical knowledge and experience combined with sound judgment and high administrative ability.

## *2. Inferior and inadequate High Schools.*

The number of first-class High Schools in the State ought to be considerably increased. With a view of greater economy, or from a want of appreciation of the practical value of a higher education, not a few boards of education have unwisely and unnecessarily limited the course of study in the schools under their control. It is not, of course, practicable for small towns to provide educational advantages as extensive as those provided by the larger cities; but every town can and should carry the work of education to as high a point as the home demand for such education will justify. No community can afford to have a score or more of its youth sent abroad each year to receive those school advantages which might be better provided at home. There certainly can be no good reason for a failure to sustain efficient High Schools in cities of the size of Zanesville, Springfield, Hamilton, Chillicothe, Portsmouth, Circleville, Lancaster, Mansfield, Akron, Canton and Tiffin. In each of these and other wealthy cities of the State, there should be a High School sustained equal in the extent and thoroughness of its instruction to our higher academies and seminaries. The fact that some of the cities named, and

others not named, do sustain such schools, settles the question of ability. Nor are good High Schools confined to cities. Many of our thriving towns exceed some of the smaller cities in their advantages for obtaining a higher education. A good High School adds but little to the expense of a school system, and as a part of such system, is worth more than all it costs independent of the advantages received by its actual pupils. Its influence permeates all the other schools, causing greater uniformity and thoroughness and more regular attendance. It presents a strong and constant stimulus to the pupils in the lower classes, exciting them to a higher diligence in study and awakening a laudable desire for promotion. To parents it offers a strong inducement to continue their children in school, even at a little sacrifice, until they receive the highest educational advantages enjoyed by the children of their neighbors. A good High School is, in short, a centre of influence, and imparts dignity, reputation, and increased value to the entire school system with which it is connected. Its crowning glory is its democracy.

### *3. Party issues in school elections.*

Our schools have not wholly escaped the sharp and bitter party feeling engendered by the late war. Its mighty issues swept over and permeated every other interest. One terrible line of strife divided the people, and every other cause or interest was, to some degree, staked upon the issue. Men met at the election polls as upon a field of battle, and cast their ballots as though they were bullets. School officers elected on party issues too often placed them above the highest interests of the schools. Teachers were selected by party tests. The result wherever such a spirit prevailed, has been deplorable. In a few localities the belief or suspicion that the schools were being used as a means of party patronage, has been to them like blight or mildew. They lost the confidence and active support of the very men who had formerly contributed most largely to their success, and, as a consequence, rapidly declined in standing and usefulness. It is true, and I am glad it is, that these cases are exceptions. They none the less clearly reveal the danger of permitting party spirit to seize upon our schools. It is my candid belief that this is the most serious evil which now disturbs our common school system.

Whatever excuse, if any, for dragging school elections into



party issues, existed during the war, there is now happily no justification for such a course. The highest safety and success of the school system alike demand a speedy return to the policy of excluding partizan issues and strifes from school elections and from meetings of boards of education. Here men must agree to meet not as politicians or partizans, but as neighbors united in the defense of a common interest and zealous in the promotion of a common good. And good men of both parties must strike hands on this question, and must resolutely agree that whatever else is dragged into party strife, the school system shall not be.

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#### TALKS AFTER WORKING HOURS.—IV.

BY AN EX-MECHANIC.

A bright, active lad, some fourteen years old, was one day put under my charge as an apprentice. He was the only son of one of our workmen—a thoughtless, good-natured fellow, the acknowledged wit of the shop, who enjoyed the unenviable reputation of being the best billiard player in town. The boy was like his father in more particulars than one. He was a source of constant anxiety and annoyance to his teachers, though rarely malicious, vulgar or profane. Left much of the time to his own guidance, he foraged among the saloons and livery stables for amusement. No “bummer” in Sherman’s army had a keener scent for hidden treasures than he for fun. When quite young he was a favorite with most people, especially those who consider puns and repartees the best evidences of mental acuteness. As he grew older his wit became impertinence, his practical jokes positive outrages, in the world’s regard. Feeling restive under the restraints of the school-room, he at last became a confirmed truant. Annoyed by his waywardness, and too fond of his own ease and the billiard room to care for him as a parent should, his father took him off the street and apprenticed him to learn a trade.

Carson and myself took a long walk that evening. He had frequently related to me some of the pranks of this young hopeful, and insisted he was one who could and would hew out a path

for himself through the world. "It may be a pretty crooked one," he would say, "but quite as straight as those most men travel in. When a boy is half-way between dog and puppy, you must make allowances for him. He will come out all right, mark my word." Many a dry, quiet chuckle had he over the thought of my patience being tried by his recklessness and impertinence. He evidently proposed the walk that we might have a chat together about him. After skirmishing around for a while, and seeing he must introduce the subject himself, for I would not, he asked, "Well, how do you like your new boy, Clarence Jones?"

*Myself.*—I like him better than his reputation. He is not quite spoiled yet, though a few years longer in the course he has been pursuing, and he would have been. I am convinced that something should have been done with him, but I can not say I approve the course his father has seen fit to take.

*Carson.*—Why not? He is strong and healthy. Notwithstanding his mischievousness and truancy, he has managed to learn a good deal at school. He writes a good hand, can draw as comical a picture as you ever saw, and though his spelling is not according to either Webster or Worcester, there is not one in the shop who can handle figures more rapidly and accurately than he. You admit he was on the road to ruin—then what wrong has his father done in putting him where he must take the back track? I think I once heard you call labor a "disciplinary" power.

*M.*—I presume you did, for I place a high estimate on the value of hard work and constant employment—not so much for their disciplinary as their restraining power, however. You mistake in supposing Clarence to be now where he "*must* take the back track." He must diverge from the old one—that's all. He must, during ten hours of the day, substitute industry for idleness, so far only as his body is concerned. His mental habits need not be changed in the least, for the better. He can perpetrate puns and invent conundrums in the shop as well as at school. His evenings will be at his own disposal; for he boards at home, and there is no reason to suppose that his father ever dreams of abandoning his favorite haunts and reforming his own habits. The choice of associates and the employment of his leisure will be left to himself. The formation of habit and character will go on as heretofore—and with what result?

1. He may make an *exceptional* man: that is, the good qualities with which he is endowed—a species of self-respect, an active intellect, a not unkindly disposition—may gradually gain strength, and finally keep his bad qualities under subjection—but that, with his present surroundings, is not probable.

2. He may make an *average* man: that is, be like his father—a good *hand* mechanic, careless, thoughtless, idling away all his spare moments in places of amusement, with just sufficient moral stamina to scorn the grosser forms of vice and dissipation, but not enough to lift him above those which to weaker spirits are but the gateways to destruction. This is his probable destiny.

3. His fate will not be an uncommon one if he becomes an *outcast*. He knows already the haunts of vice and sin, and is pleased with the license which reigns there. The mould and taint of corruption are already gathering upon him. The influences must be powerful, indeed, which can lead him to detest what he now so much admires.

C.—You put things in such a queer way, always demolishing my air castles with your logic and dogmatism, that I am out of all patience with you. Why not say, just to please me, that Clarence is going to forsake his evil ways, and, under your direction, become one of those “exceptional” men, with no “if” or “but” in the case?

M.—Because I am far from believing he will do any such thing. I know it is criminal to be disheartened, and wicked to cease from well-doing—but we must never shut our eyes or close our ears against the teachings of experience. Life is not a holiday. There is work to be done by the head as well as the hand, if one wishes to rise above the common level. There is a relish for the frivolous in Clarence’s disposition, which must not be overlooked in casting his horoscope. Age may sober him down somewhat, but the boy foreshadows the man. The wire-edge of his character may be worn off by contact with the world, but its temper will remain unchanged.

C.—You may be right—but why does it require so much effort to excel? Suppose you set your inventive genius at work to contrive some easier way.

M.—Excellence requires but little more effort than mediocrity—and the average man quite frequently expends as much physi-

cal and mental force during the day as his talented and more successful neighbor. Eminence is obtained by applying all of one's energies to the production of some single great result, instead of dividing them up and frittering them away upon a multitude of trivial objects. The manner in which forces are expended determines the character of their product. How much time and money has it cost Clarence's father to become an expert billiard player? Had that money been expended in purchasing books and attractions to make home pleasant, and that time and effort in acquiring even some useful accomplishment, what a different lookout for the future there would be for both father and son.

*C.*—Then you think Jones is to blame for Clarence's peccadillos?

*M.*—Mainly so. He petted and indulged him when young; neglected him when he grew older; and now tries to shift the labor and responsibility of his reformation upon some one else. In this he is merely following the example of thousands like him. I hazard the assertion that a very large proportion of apprentices are put to trades several years before they should be, to relieve their parents from the expense of their support, or to free them from the cares and duties of parenthood. A lad of fourteen summers hears the hum of the busy world around him, and becomes fascinated with the glittering tinsel of the world's great show. He deems no tyranny so great as the wholesome restraints of school. Now, when parental advice and authority are most needed, both are wanting. Immediate pecuniary interest outweighs every other consideration—the popular fallacy that the young should have their own way in the choice of a trade or profession easing any slight qualms of conscience the parent may have. They grow up to be mechanics, and nothing more. The enlightened system of education with which our country is blessed, fails to tell upon the laboring classes. I was told, the other day, that not a single male student had ever finished the course of study in one of our best High Schools—the graduating class invariably consisting of young ladies. I hope the case is an exceptional one, but fear it is not—for whenever the fresh “spoor” of a stray penny is found, a hue and cry is raised at once, which empties our school-rooms of all the larger boys. It has always seemed strange to me that with the experience of blasted hopes to guide them, parents can

suffer, nay, even advise their children to chose the identical *ignis fatuus* which has lured them on "o'er moss and fell," through tangled brake and oozy swamp all their lives.

C.—But what more can be done for Clarence than has been done? You can not make a sober, sedate, model boy of him,—such a one as we read of in the Sunday School books. Take his fun and jokes away, and he would be the stupidest fellow in town. Science has not yet discovered how to make an owl out of a parrot.

M.—Who proposes to do that? I certainly do not. Instead of endeavoring to repress his fancy and imagination, I would prune them of their wild luxuriance, and train them for use, not show. They are the only faculties of his mind yet developed. The true course is to *make* him submit to parental authority: force him, if necessary, to forsake his disreputable haunts and evil associations: place him where all the faculties of his mind would be disciplined by proper incentives, judicious restraint, and hard study. His habits are formed, but not confirmed. He may try for a time to free himself from the strong hand which holds him firmly in its grasp; but each day his struggles will become weaker; his active mind will learn to seek enjoyment in the new objects with which he is surrounded; his chastened fancy will spread its wings in a purer atmosphere, and his imagination learn to rear structures replete with symmetry and beauty. This can not be done in our shop. The school is the place for him. The groveling utilitarianism which begrudges the time and expense of training and disciplining his untamed nature, is the result of either the most stupid ignorance or the most miserly parsimony.

Parenthood is a holy thing. Jones ignores his plainest demands—thoughtlessly, ignorantly, I trust. How can he look his boy in the face without a sinking of the heart, from contrition, amazes me. Should you and I ever hear the patter of little feet in our own homes, may God's grace give us wisdom to teach them how to walk in right paths.

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• AN institution for training men to train the young would be a fountain of living waters sending forth streams to refresh present and future ages.—*Dr. Channing.*

## HOW TO TEACH NOTATION.

BY PROF. A. SCHUYLER.

In presenting this subject to a class, it is important first to give the pupils a clear idea of a unit. This idea is best conveyed to the mind by presenting some single object to the eye. A variety of objects should be presented, one at a time, till the idea is clearly apprehended that unity is not the exclusive characteristic of any one object in particular, but that it is a property of every single object. In a similar manner, the idea of two, three, etc., should be made clear to the mind.

We have found by experience that dots on the blackboard are the best objects for illustration, since they are in full view of the class, and an unlimited number can be made. Thus, the single dot (.) will be the primary unit, which we will call a unit of the first order and denote by the figure 1. Then two dots (..) will be two units of the first order, which we will denote by the figure 2. Let this number be analyzed thus, pointing to the dots:  $2 = 1$  and 1. In like manner, three dots (...) will be three units of the first order, which we will denote by the figure 3. Analyze thus:  $3 = 2$  and 1 or 1 and 2, or 1, 1 and 1. In a similar way, the numbers up to nine should be represented and analyzed.

The definition of number may now be given, thus: A number is a unit or a collection of units. The absence of number is denoted by the figure 0, called a cipher, naught, or zero.

Let now the blackboard be cleared, and the question asked: How many dots are on the board? Not any, will be the ready response. How can this fact (the absence of dots) be denoted? By the zero, thus: 0.

The preceding will be sufficient for one lesson.

Let the following be written on the board, and analyzed in the review:

	0
.	1
..	2
...	3
....	4
.....	5
.....	6
.....	7
.....	8
.....	9

If we should go on in the same way for the succeeding numbers, arranging the dots in rows and denoting the number in each row by a single figure, we should find that an indefinite number of figures would be required. This method is evidently impracticable.

The difficulty is obviated by the following artifice: Let us call a row of ten dots a full or complete row, thus: . . . . .

How many rows have we here? One.

The one dot we called a unit of the first order, and the one row we shall call a unit of the second order.

We shall write units of the first order in the first or right hand place, and units of the second order in the second place, just at the left of the first place. How then is the one row of dots to be denoted? Since it is a unit, we shall denote it by the figure 1; but this notation alone would not distinguish it from the dot, we therefore write the 1 in the second place, and since we have but the one row and no more dots, we fill the first place with the 0, thus 10, which denotes one unit of the second order.

Eleven dots are arranged and denoted thus:

. . . . .  
 . 11, which is one unit of the second order  
 and one of the first.

Twelve, thus: . . . . .

12.

Twenty dots would form two units of the second order, or two rows, thus:

. . . . .  
 . . . . . 20.

Let now the pupils be required to express, in dots, the numbers denoted by the following expressions: 1, 2, 3, etc.; 10, 11, 12, 13, etc.; 20, 21, 22, etc.; 30, 31, 32, etc.; 40, 41, 42, etc., etc., etc.

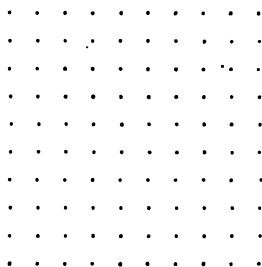
Let the dots also first be made, and then required to be denoted by the proper figures.

If the question, Why were just ten dots taken to form a complete row? is not asked by the scholars, it should be by the teacher. There is no necessity in taking this number, for any other number might have been taken. This forms an excellent opportunity for the teacher to point out the distinction between a necessary principle and that which is merely conventional. But

there is undoubtedly a reason why ten units of the first order, rather than any other number, were taken to form one unit of the second order. It probably originated in the practice of counting by means of the fingers and thumbs.

The above will be sufficient for the second lesson.

Suppose now we have dots just sufficient to form ten rows, we would arrange them into a square, thus :



How many squares have we here? One. This one square is then a unit, but it is neither a unit of the first order (a dot), nor a unit of the second order (a row of ten dots), but ten such rows, forming one square. We therefore call it a unit of the third order, and denote it thus, 100. The naughts in the second and first places denote the absence of rows and dots in addition to those in the square. This gives a clear idea of one hundred.

Let now the scholars be required to express in dots the numbers denoted by the following expressions: 100, 101, 102, etc.; 110, 111, 112, etc.; 120, 121, 122, etc., etc.

Let the dots also be first written, and required to be denoted by the proper figures. This will be the proper limit for the third lesson.

If we have ten units of the third order, or ten squares of dots, we place the squares, side by side, thus forming a rectangle of dots, and this will be a unit of the fourth order, denoted thus, 1000. It will not be necessary actually to make this rectangle of dots on the board, for the imagination, which ought to be cultivated, will readily form the correct picture of it in the mind, and when this is done, the mind will have a true conception of one thousand.

Ten of these rectangles would form a larger square, or a unit



of the fifth order, denoted thus, 10,000, and of this, the imagination is to form the picture, which will be the true conception of one ten thousand.

Ten of these squares will form a larger rectangle, or a unit of the sixth order, denoted thus, 100,000, and of which the picture formed by the imagination will be the true conception of one hundred thousand.

Ten of these larger rectangles form a still larger square, or a unit of the seventh order, thus denoted, 1,000,000, of which the picture formed by the imagination will be the true conception of a million.

This process might be continued to any extent, and it will be found that every unit of an odd order is a square, and every unit of an even order a rectangle. The names of these orders of units should now be given, thus : Units, tens, hundreds, thousands, ten thousands, hundred thousands, millions, ten millions, hundred millions, billions, etc.

It will be observed that ten units of the first order equal one of the second, ten of the second, one of the third, etc., and in general, ten units of any order equal one unit of the next higher order, and conversely, one unit of any order equals ten units of the next lower order.

Time will be required thus to teach, but the practice of hurrying classes over subjects so rapidly that it is impossible to understand them, can not be too severely reprehended.

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## COMPARATIVE GEOGRAPHY.

BY T. E. SULIOT.

"Geography can just as little be contented with being a mere description of the earth and a catalogue of its divisions, as a detailed account of the objects in nature can take the place of a thorough and real natural history."—*Ritter's Comparative Geography*.

Within the present generation, great improvements have been made in the teaching of geography in our schools. Many years ago, in his report of his educational tour through Europe, Horace

Mann gave a graphic description of the mode of teaching pursued in the schools of Germany, where teacher and pupil drew on the blackboard from recollection the principal physical features of each country, then located the chief towns, etc. The admirable works on Physical Geography by Prof. Trail, of Edinburgh, Sir John Herschell, and by Mary Somerville, the best of all, had made accessible to the general reader and to young students the leading points of a science that, with her sister Geology, is one of the daughters last adopted into the divine family of the Physical Sciences.

But Mary Somerville's work is too abstruse in some of its parts,—presupposing in the reader a knowledge of kindred subjects, the want of which obscures the text.

The text book used in our schools—Warren's Atlas of Physical Geography—is too sketchy for our collegiate classes. *He* would confer a great benefit on education, who, from these and similar works (as Humboldt's Cosmos), should compile a treatise of moderate size, embodying their excellencies and leaving out all the details which are too scientific for an elementary work. Who is more capable of performing that important task than that accomplished scholar, T. W. Harvey, who has made Physical Geography the special study of his life, and to whose lectures on that subject many of us have listened with delight? May he be spared to undertake and complete a work which, perhaps, he is even now silently preparing!

Mr. White's little work has revolutionized the study of Primary Geography, and converted into a lively, mind-awakening exercise what before was a lifeless and wearisome drudgery—the committing to memory of unintelligible abstractions.

Guyot's charming book—"The Earth and Man"—traces out striking analogies which reveal systematic order, where hitherto we had seen nothing but accident and confusion. His school-maps now published, with the geographical text-books which are promised soon to follow, will triumphantly carry on in the higher classes the work so happily begun in our primary schools by Mr. White's book.

But a new book, fuller than Guyot's and still more interesting, has been lately published by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia: Ritter's Comparative Geography, translated from the German by

William L. Gage. In this work, within the moderate compass of about 200 8vo. pages, we have presented to us in language always clear and terse, occasionally rising to poetical expression and to eloquence, those beautiful analogies between the various continents, oceans, &c., of the earth, the exposition of which, to use the words of the author, converts geography from a mere lifeless aggregate of inorganic parts into a science where system takes the place of what had seemed chaotic confusion, and exhibits the habitation of man as a true organization, whose several parts contribute to the harmony, use and beauty of the whole.

We earnestly recommend this book to the young students of our High Schools and Colleges as eminently calculated to invest with new and wondrous interest what perhaps they have been learning merely from a sense of duty and necessity, rather than from its own intrinsic attraction.

To all teachers of Geography, this work is nearly indispensable, until its principal features are embodied into our common geographical text-books. The attentive perusal of either Ritter or Guyot, is a necessary qualification for a teacher who aims to be something better than the wearied recipient of lifeless recitations of tasks lifelessly committed to memory from the dull pages of a catalogue of proper names and political divisions arbitrarily parceled out of the surface of the earth, so beautifully prepared for the habitation of man by a wise and benevolent Creator.

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## INTERESTING WRITING LESSONS.

BY MISS ELIZABETH HACKING.

Teachers of Penmanship, who give many lessons in succession in the copy-book, may enter the school-room feeling as much enthusiasm as an artist might do when first coming in sight of the Eternal City. But this ardor will soon be chilled, for as soon as the pleasure of a new copy-book has worn away, with the want of variety, and the monotony of writing one column after another, the scholars lose all interest, and it then becomes more difficult for the teacher of Penmanship to keep the minds of the scholars

upon what they are doing, than in those branches in which new ideas are presented daily.

For an interesting exercise in writing, the scholars being prepared with waste-book, and wishing each member of the class to do something which interests him, I show them a number of specimens of various kinds. Placing one before them to criticise, and observing them as they look at it, some by their expression say, "I like that, and can do it"; while others may look listless, though, perhaps, not wanting in either taste or ambition. Presenting a different one to them, those faces void of expression before may change, and sparkle as the darkened waters of the ocean do, when the sun suddenly gleams from behind a cloud. So, I imagine, is it with artists; for were a number of them shown a painting, however beautiful it might appear to some, others would view it with indifference, and, if making it a study, would attain little of its perfection. When each pupil is provided with something which interests him, at a signal given by the teacher they begin to imitate the models they have selected.

Verses of poetry, business notes, a letter, or ornamental penmanship, form an attractive lesson which may develop some latent ideal of beauty, and kindle anew the waning interest of the pupil.

In criticising the penmanship of exercises in other branches, it may be observed that the signature is written with less care than the other portion. If one lesson be devoted at the commencement of a term to practice in writing their own name, grade, and the district which they attend, it will soon be seen by comparison that in giving such lesson the time is well spent. At the close of each regular lesson, one pupil's name, with grade, district and date, written on the board by the teacher to be copied by that scholar and criticised by the class at the next lesson, will secure, if persevered in, a permanent care as to names.

There is not a more beneficial or pleasing exercise for scholars than to practice ovals and "the line of beauty," and while doing so, to keep precise time to the teacher counting. When teaching a well disciplined class, who obey with military exactness, much more rapid progress will be made by counting for every line; for by this means some acquire a better slope, and others get rid of a contracted manner of writing. Counting also assists by guiding

the hand and pen in much the same manner as an accompaniment of music aids the voice in making its various waves of melody.

Though the advance in number of columns will necessarily not be as great if the classes have one such lesson a week, yet with the now awakened enthusiasm of the pupils, and increased attention to explanations, a marked improvement will soon be seen in the copy-book which could not be attained by any number of regular drill writing-lessons.

The position of writing-teacher has, like others, its shady and sunny side. But in every occupation there are difficulties to contend with and obstacles to surmount; and Tennyson clothed a true thought in beautiful language, when he wrote—"Shadow and shine is life, flower and thorn."

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### WILLIAM H. MCGUFFEY.

William H. McGuffey, D.D., LL.D., is the son of a Scotch Presbyterian farmer, and was born in Washington county, Pa., in the year 1800. During the first eighteen years of his life, he enjoyed no advantages of education beyond what were afforded by the rude schools which the frugal country people were able to sustain during the winter months. When William was still a child, his father removed to Trumbull



county, Ohio, and established his family in a log cabin, on a small tract of land which he had recently purchased, the country for miles around being yet an unbroken forest. Here William engaged

with ardor in the labors of opening a farm in the woods; but never allowed manual labor to dull his desire for intellectual improvement. In the intervals of farm-work, he improved every opportunity of gaining knowledge—borrowing books wherever they were to be had, and occasionally, and at irregular intervals, obtaining an hour's instructions from the clergyman of the neighborhood. When about eighteen years of age, he began the study of Latin *with borrowed books*; and used to walk (once a week) a distance of several miles to the house of the country clergyman, to recite the lessons which he had prepared in the brief intervals of his daily toil.

His father being too poor to aid him in acquiring an education, William began the business of teaching so soon as he could be spared from the farm; and in this way sustained himself until he was enabled to graduate, which he did with distinguished honor, at the age of twenty-five, at Washington College, Pennsylvania, then under the Presidency of that great and good man, Andrew Wylie, D.D., subsequently for many years President of the University of Indiana at Bloomington. So high was Mr. McGuffey's reputation for scholarship, and such a reputation had he already acquired as a teacher, that upon his graduation, he was immediately elected to the Chair of Ancient Languages in the Miami University at Oxford, Ohio. In this chair he continued for seven years, noted for the accuracy of his learning and the thoroughness of his teachings.

In 1829, he was called to the ministry of the Presbyterian Church, in which he has continued to labor ever since, but generally without having any pastoral charge. In 1832 he was transferred to the Professorship of Moral Philosophy in the same University.

In 1836 he was elected to the Presidency of the Cincinnati College, which in that year was reorganized, with a most distinguished faculty, embracing names already eminent in the departments of Law, Medicine and Letters; among which may be mentioned Doctors Drake and Gross, of the Medical Faculty, the latter being the celebrated surgeon who has so long been a resident of Philadelphia; Edward D. Mansfield, LL.D., the Statistician and Statesman; and Judges Walker and Wright of the Law School; and the late General O. M. Mitchel, the astronomer and

soldier, and Professors Telford and Drury in the Academy Faculty. To be placed at the head of such a galaxy of brilliant men was a high testimonial to the eminence which Mr. McGuffey had already attained.

While in the Presidency of the Cincinnati College, he received the degrees of Doctor of Divinity and Doctor of Laws from several Universities, Eastern as well as Western.

In 1839, he was elected to the Presidency of the Ohio University at Athens. In 1845, he resigned his position at Athens, and accepted the Chair of Moral Philosophy and Political Economy in the University of Virginia.

From the year 1829 to the present time, Dr. McGuffey has, in addition to discharging the onerous duties of the different chairs which he has occupied, been laborious and incessant in the duties of the ministry, aiding and building up feeble churches, preaching generally twice every Sabbath; and has rendered signal service to the cause of education by lectures and addresses in all parts of the United States, but chiefly in the States of Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania and Virginia. But the labor by which his name has become most widely known, has been the preparation of the "Eclectic Series" of Readers. His attention having been strongly directed to the defects in existing school books, during his own career as a teacher in primary schools, he availed himself of his first leisure, while in the Chair of Languages in Miami University, to endeavor to supply what he had felt to be a great want. Taking in his own house a class of very young children, he led them step by step, for several years, beginning with the alphabet, noting all that their progress indicated or their mistakes and difficulties suggested, and preparing and modifying the lessons as the necessities of the young mind required; and from this protracted study grew the "Eclectic Series" of reading-books, so familiar in common school instruction during the last twenty-five years.

Dr. McGuffey is still in the prime of his intellectual life; and is distinguished as a clear, original and vigorous thinker, and an impressive speaker. He makes no show of oratory; but in lucid statement, felicitous illustration, and cogent logic, he has few equals in any profession.

For the Ohio Educational Monthly.

## MY GIFTS.

A radiant gem, most pure and rare,  
I cherished once with tenderest care:  
I loved it for its rays of light,  
Which, calm and steady, blessed my sight;  
That all might praise I showed my gem—  
'T was claimed for my King's diadem;  
Weeping, I gave my jewel up,—  
Crying, O King, pass by this cup!

My King with firm and kind command,  
Stayed all my struggling 'gainst His hand.  
Then "let me die," in haste I cried,—  
"I'm faint and sick, such ills betide  
The path that is marked out for me;  
And I'm so weary—Let me be  
To earth as though I had not been;  
Open, O grave, and take me in!"

One warm and genial summer day,  
A flower sprang up beside the way  
I trod with trembling feet and sore,—  
I thought upon my ills no more  
While its pure fragrance filled the air;  
But said, "Away far hence with all my care!"  
Alas! there came a night of frost:  
Flower and fragrance both were lost.

Again I cried with sudden dread,  
"Would God that I this day were dead!  
My way grows dark and darker still;  
Not so, O heaven, but as I will!"  
I know not if my impious prayer  
Reached high as heaven and entered there;  
I only know I saw no more  
The gem and flower I saw before.

The night hung heavy, damp and chill  
Above my head, and darker still  
Around my heart were gathering fears;  
My eyes were wet with bitterest tears,  
When 'mid the clouds there shone a light,—  
A star had risen on my night!  
I sang: "My sorrows now are o'er;  
There's light above me evermore!"



It sent one quick, full, quivering ray  
Into my heart, then went its way.  
Now flowers may wither and gems depart,  
I'll only say, "Be still, my heart;  
And wait the gleaming of that star  
That shines beyond the clouds afar!"  
Even so, my Father, let it be,  
Since good it seemeth unto Thee.

CLEVELAND, O.

E. L. B.

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GOVERNOR COX ON COMMON SCHOOLS.

[In his late Inaugural Address, Governor Cox paid the following just and eloquent tribute to our common school system:]

Our common school system is to be fostered and improved, and there is nothing in which our people have a deeper interest than this. If there be any one thing to which, under Providence, more than to another, we owe our safe passage through our recent perils, I believe it is the intelligence which our common schools have universally diffused. It has not been simply the power to read, but that larger and wider culture which has made the American people capable of weighing and deciding upon grave arguments of right and policy in the midst of greatest excitement. The Government appealed to them as to men able to comprehend any arguments of State policy, and the steady loyalty of the people and their persevering support of the national cause was in direct proportion to the intelligence and education of different States or communities. I will even go further, and declare my belief, that outside of the immediate theater of hostile operations, the cause of the Government never lost anything by the most untrammelled freedom of public discussion and printing, because the people were always able to detect the sophisms of disloyalty, and their patriotic purposes were strengthened rather than weakened by seeing the whole force of the enemy they had to meet. Among the safeguards of our liberties and guaranties of the permanence of our institutions, I reckon our school system the very chief. Blind and devoted love of country may exist under a despotism, if ignorance be the mother of a superstitious or a childish attachment; but liberty and republicanism can be built on no other solid foundation than intelligence in the whole mass of the people. A wise self-interest is made the basis of all scientific political economy, and when a whole people have learned to estimate that interest truly, besides loving their country dearly, you have ground for faith in the stability of their Government, such as can be got in no other way. It is because of the general conviction that our common schools may be made to secure this result, that there is an equally general belief that no money used for public purposes is so well invested as that which supports our school system.

## Official Department.

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We continue our selections from the revised opinions and instructions of the Commissioner, as published in the new edition of the School Laws:

### Section II.

2. TIME AND PLACE OF ELECTION.—A school meeting for the election of directors must always be held at the usual hour of holding such meetings, except when the local directors, as provided in the last clause of section 2, designate a specific hour by posting up written notices. If any thing prevents the holding of the meeting at the usual place, the local directors should appoint another place of meeting, and cause notices thereof to be posted up, as is provided in case a specific hour of meeting is appointed.

3. TERM OF OFFICE.—The following provision of this section, viz: "of those so elected, the person receiving the highest number of votes shall hold his office for three years; the person receiving the next highest number, shall hold the office for two years; and the person receiving the next highest number, shall hold the office for one year"—was intended to apply only to the *first* election held under the law. When a vacancy occurs in the office of director by death, resignation, or otherwise, making it necessary to elect two directors at a school meeting, each voter should designate on his ballot which of the persons voted for is to serve three years, and which is to fill the vacancy aforesaid. See section 3.

4. TIE VOTE.—The provision for casting lots, "in case of two or more persons elected having received an equal number of votes," applied only to the *first* election under the law, and related, not to the *election* of directors, but to the *duration* of the official term of those already elected. A tie vote at a school election is a failure to elect. Whenever two persons receive an equal number of votes, another ballot should be taken, either at the time or at an adjourned meeting. Successive ballots may be taken at a school meeting, if necessary to effect a choice of director.

5. ELECTION OF DIRECTORS IN NEW SUB-DISTRICTS.—When a new sub-district is formed, as prescribed in section 14, the township board of education should cause to be posted up, in three of the most public places of such sub-district, a notice in writing, describing such sub-district, and appointing a time and place for the first meeting of the qualified voters thereof, to elect, by ballot, three school directors. If the board fail to call such meeting, any three qualified voters resident within such sub-district, may call a meeting to elect directors by posting up, in connection with the written notice of the meeting, a certificate from the township clerk, showing the action of the board of education in forming the new sub-district, and describing the boundaries thereof.

The mode of determining the respective terms of office of the directors of such new sub-district, must be the same as prescribed in section 2 for the first election of local directors under the present school law.

6. ELECTION OF DIRECTORS IN JOINT SUB-DISTRICTS.—All the qualified voters resident within a joint sub-district are entitled to vote at school elections, and persons residing in any part of such joint sub-district may be elected to the office of director. The clerk of the board of local directors is a member of the board of education of the township in which the school is situated, whether such clerk resides in the same or another township. Section 16, as amended March 28, 1865. The first meeting for the election of local directors in a new joint sub-district, should be called by the board of education having control of the school, in the manner prescribed above for the first election in a new sub-district.

## Editorial Department.

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THE Editor is greatly indebted to his Associates and other excellent contributors for timely and valuable assistance this month. During the preparation of the next and succeeding numbers, he will be relieved from pressing official labors, and with a continuance of the excellent aid the MONTHLY is now receiving, he hopes to make it worthy of a generous support.

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### HIGH SCHOOLS AND SUPERVISION.

A little more than a year ago, in an editorial article upon the Public Schools of Springfield, we alluded to the abolition of the High School and the office of Superintendent four years before, and the effect of the action upon the efficiency and standing of the Schools. The question involved was one of general interest, and as such we felt it to be in the line of our duty to put on record the result of the experiment.

The following editorial article from the *Springfield Daily Republic* fully accords with the views we then expressed; and is, moreover, in accordance with the experience of every city that has made a similar experiment:

**"OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS—WHAT WE NEED.**—We have repeatedly remarked that the most important feature of Springfield was her public school department. It is important not only from an educational point of view, but socially and commercially. We wish to bring this remark again before the people of this city, with such additional remarks as shall do something toward enforcing it upon public attention.

"We have taken some pains to inform ourselves as to the present status of the several public schools. We are satisfied that there has been some improvement—that the grade of scholarship is advancing. The schools are better than they have been heretofore. We may safely say that we have pretty fair public schools. But "pretty fair public schools" will not answer the purpose—in Springfield. We should have first-class schools! They should not be a whit inferior, in thoroughness, drill, discipline and diversity of branches taught, to those of Cincinnati, Dayton, Columbus, Cleveland, or any other city! There has been improvement enough in our schools, during the past two years, to show what they are capable of being made.

"Springfield is a city of 12,000 inhabitants—intelligent, enterprising people, not overwhelmed, to say the least, with poverty. Her preachers, attorneys, physicians, and other professional men, rank with those of other cities, and do not suffer in comparison with any. Then why should our public schools suffer in comparison with those of any other city? We do not know why.

"There is, in our opinion, one important fact concerning this matter, which overshadows all other facts connected with our schools—namely, that the system upon which our schools are conducted, is a failure! This system does not and can not give us a first-class public school. It is a mongrel system. It is partly one thing and partly another, and mostly nothing at all, considered as a system. It is not a graded school, and it is not anything else! It purports to be a graded school. The people decided that it should be a graded school, but it is not.

"We believe that we should have a graded school, in which a pupil should commence at the foot of the educational ladder, and ascend to the highest round! But we have no highest round. It is generally supposed that we have two, but neither of these are high enough.

"We can never have efficiency, thoroughness, perfect unity and completeness of action, and the highest success in our public schools, until they are MADE A UNITY, with one competent mind to conduct, to manage, to CONTROL the whole—to select such sub-teachers as shall intelligently and heartily carry out his plans, so that the efforts of each teacher shall tend in the direction of accomplishing the grand result. Should there be teachers who are not competent, or not willing to co-operate, the public good demands that they should be dismissed! Poor public school teachers are a worse public scourge than small-pox or cholera!

"And a twin idea with the one we have mentioned, is a single higher department, to which each pupil may aspire, and which will secure to all the advantages of a thorough common school education.

"Nothing short of these two features will secure to Springfield a first-class public school department. We think the members of our school board are pretty well convinced of this, and we assure them that if they will make their arrangements to commence the next school year upon the improved plan, they shall have as good and substantial backing as they can desire. And if they find that funds are lacking, there are a number of public-spirited men in Springfield who will do their part toward supplying the deficiency out of their own pockets."

### INDIANA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

We attended the meeting of the Indiana teachers, held at Terre Haute during the holiday week. The meeting was large, earnest, and harmonious in its discussions. The addresses throughout were able and of practical bearing on the interests of education. All the speakers with one exception, and he was unavoidably detained, were punctual in the performance of their duties; and there was no hitch in the working of the programme as arranged by the Chairman of the Executive Committee from the beginning to the end. There was little or no idle talk for mere talk's sake. No offering of resolutions having no object except to get the mover's name on the minutes, or at the head of a committee, portending a flatulent report at a future session. Any distinction among the speakers where all discharged their duties so well, would be invidious, even if our space would permit it. Ohio was ably represented among them by WM. E. CROSBY, of Cincinnati.

The action of the Association of most general interest was the adoption of a resolution calling upon the delegates of the State in the National Congress to forward by all means in their power the formation of a National Bureau of Education. A resolution was also adopted condemning in the strongest terms the law of the State which cuts off from all educational privileges the twenty-five thousand of her colored population, and claiming equal rights for all in their public school system.

Our Indiana friends have a very absurd law, which permits the people of a school district to meet together, and by vote nominate the teacher of their school. This power, of course, leads to endless neighborhood quarrels and bickerings, where all should be harmony and united effort. The Legislature was requested to repeal it.

The Association greatly felicitated itself on the passage of the law creating a State Normal School; also on the school funds having come into the princely inheritance of five millions of dollars, the proceeds of a sinking fund from the State Bank.

The members of the Association were entertained in a most hospitable and princely manner by the citizens of Terre Haute.

From what we have noticed of the work and spirit of the Superintendent and teachers of the State, we are convinced that Indiana is making giant strides for the foremost rank in educational progress; and that unless we bestir ourselves here in Ohio, she will outstrip us in a very few years.

J. H.

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### HELPS OVER HARD PLACES.

To know when to give a pupil assistance, and when to refrain from it, is one of the most perplexing of the teacher's problems. As a general rule, nothing should be done for the pupil which, by proper exertion, he can do for himself. But then how is it to be determined that he has made the proper exertion? It certainly is not well to permit him to flounder on day after day, and week after week, in a very slough of difficulties, with no ray of light to guide his way out, until he is ready to give up in despair, under the plea that he is to rely on himself and do his own work. The teacher's place is not to cut the knot of difficulty, but to place in the pupil's hand the end of that thread which, if faithfully followed up, will unravel it. It requires rare tact and penetration on the teacher's part to determine exactly where the pupil's trouble lies, and what is the exact remedy for it. But it was not of help in general, but of certain kinds of help, which are always objectionable, that we wished to speak.

There are well-meaning, hard-working teachers who, from their extreme good nature in giving assistance to their pupils, never accomplish any thing. We well remember one of this kind who had the rather difficult task of developing our intellect in its period of very young *veal*. We had tried to "work a sum" in the Arithmetic of the venerable Pike (whose name we can not mention without awe to this day) until we were tired,—not a very long period by the way,—and had taken it up to the "master" for assistance. "Ye ancient pedagogue" pulled his glasses down from his forehead to his nose, took the slate, worked the sum, and handed the slate back to us without a word of explanation. We looked the work over pretty carefully, rubbed it out, and resolved to give the example another trial. We did so, but with no better success than at first. Reluctantly we were compelled to ask aid the second time. The Master looked at us with surprise, if not with some irritation. "Why," said he, "I have done that sum for you. Go on to the next." And that was the way we went through the arithmetic.

How often have we seen the scholar hesitating for a word in the midst of a sentence, upon which the whole meaning depended, kindly supplied with that word by the teacher, who never seemed to dream that the pupil in failing to get that had failed in obtaining any idea from the sentence whatever, and that instead of its being a collection of words making complete sense, it was a jumble of words making complete nonsense. Thus: "John what is English Grammar?" John starts very volubly, and on a very high key: "English Grammar teaches

us how to *read* the English language"—teacher interposes, "Teaches how to *speak*, isn't it?"—John readily assents: "Teaches how to *speak* the English language correctly." "But it teaches something else, doesn't it?" "Yes, sir." "Well, what else is it that it teaches?" "Why, sir, I know very well what it is, but I can't just think of it." "It teaches to *write* the language correctly, doesn't it?" "Yes, sir! I was just going to say that." Now, if the teacher were to ask John, after all this catechising and these leading questions, to give the definition in full, he probably could come no nearer it than at first.

No teacher can be sure that his pupils have an intelligent knowledge of their lessons, unless they can recite the words of the text promptly, and without the straining effort to recollect, that it is painful to witness. Whenever a scholar fixes his eye on vacancy with a dull leaden look, accompanied by knit eyebrows and an evident unconsciousness of every thing going on about him, and runs over the words of his lesson with precipitate rapidity, he should be stopped at once, as he knows nothing more of what he is attempting to recite than though it was Choctaw or Sanscrit. He should be compelled to go over the text very slowly, enunciating every word with the utmost distinctness, giving the definition of every word, and, at last, the sense in his own language. Even after the subject has been held up, suspended, as it were, in a dry light, so that the pupil can look all around it, and has answered every question upon it, the teacher can not feel too sure that it is thoroughly understood. We remember a case in point in our own experience. We were examining a class that we had taught in English grammar, and which, we had a great deal of confidence, understood pretty thoroughly as much of the subject as it had been over. One of the questions was—"What are the three methods of distinguishing gender in English?" The answer, of course, was—"By different words, by different terminations, and by words prefixed or affixed." What was our disgust to find that several of the class had written *determinations* for terminations, showing by this most ridiculous answer, that they had attempted to commit words to memory, without the most remote conception of their meaning. If our friends, who think they are doing remarkably well in their teaching, and are inclined to be puffed up thereat, let them put their pupils through a pretty stiff written examination, and our word for it, they will have the conceit taken out of them pretty effectually.

To return to suggestive questions as helps over hard places. A friend of ours relates that he once was present at the examination in geometry of a graduating class in a young ladies' academy, which proceeded something in this wise:

*Teacher*—"Miss A. what proposition have you to demonstrate?" Miss A. says nothing, and looks embarrassed. "It is to demonstrate that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles, is it not?" "Yes, sir!" Another pause. "You draw the triangle ABC, do you not?" "Yes, sir." And she draws it. "You then draw the line ED parallel to the line AB, do you not?" "Yes, sir." And so on through the whole demonstration! That was a process for unfolding mind, wasn't it?

Let us say, in conclusion, if any of our readers have been in the habit of attempting to help their pupils over difficulties by suggestive questions, reform it altogether as you value your success as teachers.

J. H.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY.**—This body has now been in session one month, and a large number of bills are in the hands of the several committees. The fact that not a bill has been introduced amending or affecting the provisions of the general school law, indicates a commendable disposition on the part of the members to let the law stand as it is, without further amendment. The legislation now called for is that which shall add new elements of efficiency to the school system, first and foremost among which is an efficient system of professional training for the teachers of the State, including a State Normal School, Normal Institutes, etc. A special report upon this subject by the Commissioner of Common Schools, was presented to the General Assembly on the 29th ult., and ordered to be printed. We shall refer to the report more at length next month.

All our readers will be glad to know that the School Committees in the Senate and House are composed of staunch school men, who will faithfully guard the school interests of the State. The Committees are composed as follows:

*Senate*—Messrs. DOAN, MARTIN, BROWN, IRION, CUMMINS, MAY and GODFREY.

*House*—Messrs. STANTON, KIBBEE, PIATT, ENCELL, ALEXANDER, DRESBACH and BUTTER.

Mr. MARTIN, who rendered the cause of education such efficient service as Chairman of the School Committee of the last Senate, is President *pro tem.* of the Senate.

**TRUANCY.**—The following resolution offered by Mr. KEER, of Jefferson county, has been adopted by the House of Representatives:

**WHEREAS**, There are many parents and guardians who are grossly negligent of duty in regard to giving youth under their care the benefits arising from our common schools; and,

**WHEREAS**, Said neglect is not only a wrong to said youth, but also a source of crime and an act of injustice to the community at large: Therefore,

*Resolved*, That the Committee on Common Schools be instructed to inquire into the propriety and necessity of providing by law that the habitual truancy and non-attendance at school be greatly lessened, if not effectually prohibited, and to report by bill or otherwise at their earliest convenience.

At the late meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association at Cincinnati, Messrs. REINMUND, COWDERY, STEVENSON, TAPPAN and HANCOCK were appointed a committee to memorialize the General Assembly, praying for the passage of an efficient and practicable law for the suppression of this great evil. It is hoped that the memorial of the committee may be laid before the General Assembly at an early day.

**DESERVED PRAISE.**—We have clipped from our exchanges commendatory notices of the schools of Norwalk and Middletown. The former is by a stranger who visited the Norwalk schools, and was in want of superlatives to express his admiration of what he saw and heard. Friend STEVENSON's work will bear inspection.—Some one has been looking in upon Mr. WOOLLARD's schools at Middletown, and seeing the evidence of an artist's handiwork, publishes the fact, and invites others to go and see for themselves. Good advice, and we hope it will be heeded.

**FREMONT PUBLIC SCHOOLS.**—The report of the Superintendent, WM. WALLACE ROSS, for the term ending December 1, 1865, indicates that the schools are making commendable progress. The Board have adopted a systematic course of study—an important matter in the management of a system of Graded Schools—and the Superintendent and teachers are trying to improve the attendance.

**CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN SCHOOL.**—In the City Court of New Haven, Conn., a decision was lately rendered in which the following rule was laid down respecting the legal right of a teacher to punish a pupil:

"While the master, to a certain extent, and for certain purposes, stands *in loco parentis*, and has, for sufficient cause, the right to inflict *reasonable* corporal punishment, while the pupil is under his charge, he must exercise a reasonable judgment and sound discretion in determining when to punish, and to what extent; but the punishment must not be excessive or cruel, nor inflicted for the purpose of gratifying private malice or his own evil passions.

"Punishments may be severe, yet entirely reasonable; and on the other hand, even moderate punishments may, under certain circumstances, be unreasonable; but *excessive* and cruel punishments are not only unreasonable but unlawful, and for their infliction the master may be held criminally responsible."

This ruling is in accordance with the almost uniform decisions of the courts upon this subject.

**"THE CHILDREN OF THE BATTLE-FIELD."**—In our notice of the teachers' excursion to Gettysburg, in August last, we alluded to the singing of a song entitled "The Children of the Battle-Field" by Prof. CLARK, of New York, the composer. Mr. J. C. BURNS, of Waynesboro, Pa., has sent us a copy of their photograph. It is a picture of three little children, two boys and a girl. The original was found in the hands of a dead sergeant, which he had held so as to let it meet his dying gaze. It is a pleasing memento of one of the most touching incidents of the war. The photograph is sold for 25 cents, and the proceeds are to be applied to the founding of an Orphans' Home to be at Valley Forge or at Gettysburg. \$25,000 has already been raised by the sale of the photograph and by donations.

**DR. DIO LEWIS' SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES.**—This school was started a little over a year since. The plan was and is to combine moral, intellectual and physical culture in such a manner as to give more prominence to physical culture than is given in any school for ladies in our country. The number was, at first, limited to thirty-five, and that number entered at once on the opening of the school. During the summer vacation, Dr. LEWIS was induced to extend his accommodations, and admit eighty. Eighty engaged rooms before the opening of the fall term; and now over one hundred are in the school. Let western educators profit by the experiment.

**S. W. NORMAL SCHOOL.**—The present number of students at this well-known institution is 275. Mr. HOLBROOK has richly earned the prosperity which he now enjoys, by long and faithful service. They who sow shall in due season reap, if they faint not. We are glad that the S. W. Normal School is obliged to enlarge its borders.

**MILLERSBURG.**—The new school house is approaching completion, and is a fine structure. It has been a great undertaking for a town of the size of Millersburg, but will prove the best investment it has ever made. The citizens will always bless the name and memory of the few live men who have zealously labored to secure this much needed improvement.

**NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.**—The State Teachers' Association of Illinois, Michigan and Indiana have adopted resolutions in favor of a National Bureau of Education.—The meeting of the National Association of School Superintendents meets at Washington, D.C., on the 6th inst.

**ANTIOCH COLLEGE.**—JOHN E. CLARK, formerly Professor of Mathematics in the State University of Michigan, takes the chair of Mathematics; and S. B. LONGLY, teacher of Chemistry at Harvard College, the chair of Chemistry. This would seem to indicate that Prof. YOUNG, who was first offered the chair of Chemistry, declined its acceptance.



**BROOKLYN, N. Y.**—We learn from an exchange that the Board of Education of Brooklyn, New York, propose a complete reorganization of the public school system of that city. The plan is to divide the schools into primary, intermediate and grammar departments, each department to occupy a separate building. The adoption of this plan, as proposed, will change the entire school system of Brooklyn, and it is believed will give accommodations for ten thousand additional pupils in the public schools, without any extra cost to the city.

**THE LATE DR. WORCESTER**, the lexicographer, gave to the American Bible Society of New York and to the American Peace Society the copyright of his *Quarto Dictionary of the English Language*, each to have one-half of the annual income thereof, subject to any incumbrances, charges or contracts existing at his death,—said devise to take effect after the death of his wife.

**THE FRIENDS** of Philadelphia have given \$125,000 in aid of the institute for colored youth in that city. The institute is on Shippen street, and is now ready to be opened with accommodations for 1200 pupils.

**THE Boston School Committee** have amended their rules so as to forbid any teacher from accepting presents from the graduating class or any other class.

## BOOK NOTICES.

**YOUMANS' NEW CHEMISTRY:** A Class-Book of Chemistry, in which the latest facts of the science are explained and applied to the arts of life and the phenomena of nature. A new edition—entirely rewritten. By **EDWARD L. YOUMANS, M.D.** New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The earlier editions of this work contained many imperfections and some inaccuracies, most of which have been removed or corrected in this new, enlarged, and well-illustrated edition. Many teachers, especially those who have no chemical apparatus, prefer even the old editions to all other class-books. The author's style is so concise and perspicuous, his choice of facts and illustrations so judicious, his arrangement of topics and particulars so logical, that the student becomes acquainted with the principles underlying the science, and learns the philosophy and use of its nomenclature, without much apparent effort. We are pleased to see that, in advance of all others, Dr. Youmans has adopted the new doctrine of Force, given a clear statement of its leading features, and changed his terminology to accord with its requirements. This, alone, is a sufficient recommendation for the work. We trust other authors and compilers will follow his example. It is time many old and worse than meaningless terms were swept from our *Chemistries* and *Natural Philosophies*.

Chemical apparatus is very desirable, but it will be many years before all the schools in which the science of Chemistry should be taught are furnished with it. With such a carefully prepared treatise as this as a text-book, both teacher and pupil will scarcely consider it a necessity.

T. W. H.

**THE ALPHABET MADE EASY.** Introductory to any Series of Readers. By WM. R. WHITE, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, West Virginia. Cincinnati: Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle.

This is a little primer in which the word method and the ABC method are combined. The pupil commences with the names of familiar objects, and in a few lessons is able to read simple sentences. He then reviews learning the names of the letters and spelling the words previously learned. He then advances combining both methods. He may also be taught to analyze the words by sounds—i. e., to spell by the phonic method. The system of teaching primary reading upon which the book is based is, in our judgment, the true one.

**THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.** No. CCX. January, 1866. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

Each number of this standard quarterly seems an improvement upon its predecessor in interest and in the sound practical character of its articles. The following is the table of contents of the January number:—I. "The Conditions of Art in America." II. "Climatic Influences as bearing upon Secession and Reconstruction." III. "Ducal Mantua." IV. "Our Financial Future." V. "Courts of Conciliation." VI. "Henry Clay." VII. "Hours of Labor." VIII. "The Present State of the Prison Discipline Question." IX. "Children's Books of the Year." X. "The President's Message." XI. "Critical Notices."

**THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY,** Devoted to Literature, Science, Art, and Politics. February, 1866. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

This number of the ever-welcome "Atlantic" presents this excellent table of contents: "English Opinion on the American War;" "Two Pictures;" "The Freedman's Story;" "The Origin of the Gipsies;" "Passages from Hawthorne's Note-Books—II;" "Court Cards;" "A Landscape Painter;" "Riviera di Ponente;" "Doctor Johns—XIII;" "The Chimney Corner for 1866—II;" "Griffith Gaunt; or, Jealousy—III;" "Three Months among the Reconstructionists;" "Reviews and Literary Notices."

**EVERY SATURDAY.** A Journal of Choice Reading selected from Foreign Current Literature. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

A new enterprise, designed to present to American readers choice selections, embracing critical and descriptive essays, incidents of travel, serial tales, short stories, poems, biographies, etc., from European periodicals. The merit and variety of the articles which it contains, will win for this weekly visitor a general welcome by the reading public. The general plan is deserving of high commendation.

**HARPERS' NEW MONTHLY MAGAZINE.** February, 1866.

**HARPERS' WEEKLY.** A Journal of Civilization. Harper & Brothers, New York.

The following is the table of contents of the "Monthly" for February:

"Blackwell's Island Lunatic Asylum;" "Euthanasia;" "Heroic Deeds of Heroic Men—X;" "Charles Ellet and his Naval Steam Ram;" "Indian Summer;" "An International Affair;" "Sweet Clover;" "The Red Jacket Medal;" "The Witnesses;" "Annadale;" "To the Unreturning Braves;" "Diamonds and other Gems;" "Christmas Guests;" "The Holidays—II;" "The March to the Sea;" "Charlotte Bronte's Lucy Stone;" "Winning his Spurs;" "Names of Places;" "Editor's Easy Chair;" "Monthly Record of Current Events;" "Editor's Drawer."

Both of these publications have won a high place for themselves among American periodicals, and supply a want which would be widely felt in their absence. Their matter is interesting and generally excellent, and is illustrated with fine wood engravings. As a record of passing events simply, each is of high value.

THE  
OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

*A Journal of School and Home Education.*

MARCH, 1866.

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Old Series, Vol. XV, No. 3.

New Series, Vol. VII, No. 3.

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PRACTICAL THOUGHTS FOR THE TEACHER.

✓ BY REV. SAMUEL FINDLEY\*,

No. I.

INTRODUCTORY.

In a log school-house, elegantly roofed with clapboards—in the last stage of decay,—having a door on one side which moved majestically on its rusty hinges, while through three small windows peered the bright face of the King of Day, as he went forth dispensing light and warmth to all the school-houses in the land,—furnished, too, with magnificent (?) slab benches,—the round side down, except in coasting time in winter, when the benches were used on the hill side,—and I must not forget those unpatented, economical writing-desks, resting on inclined pins driven in the wall,—it was in this very school-house, the scene of my apprenticeship to school teaching, that the learned employers of the district assembled about thirty years ago, to settle the important question—“How many hours per day should the schoolmaster be confined in the school-room, that his employers might receive a

\* Professor of Languages in West. Military Institute.

just equivalent for the liberal wages they paid him for his services?"

Among the speakers was a very industrious yeoman, who knew no way of estimating the value of labor but by the length of time occupied therein, and whose ideas neither corresponded with the free and easy notions of Young America, nor with the more enlightened views of the successful educator. With an earnestness akin to that manifested by Patrick Henry in his celebrated Independence speech, and with as deep and vivid a sense of the importance of the interests at stake as that which inspired the soul of the great orator, he electrified the congregated savans with the following brilliant peroration of his lengthy harangue: "When I am employed to mall rails for my neighbor, I work from sun-up till sun-down, and I *work*, too, Mr. Chairman; and I will *never* agree to pay our teacher high wages for sitting in this school-house *six hours only* per day doing nothing, and walking about as a gentleman the rest of the time. No, never."

What a sinecure, in this learned(?) man's opinion (he had never learned to read), was the teacher's profession! What a life of ease and indolent pleasure was his! What a fine specimen of the gentleman of leisure! Malling rails was something to do—it was *work* to separate the materials of a worm-fence from the body of a sturdy oak; but to teach, was *doing nothing*—at least it was not work, it was play.

These were the darker days in the history of American schools, when to *keep* school was thought by the mass of men, to be the work of that dignified gentleman of leisure called "Master;" and to throw inkstands at his head, and "*bar him out*" on Christmas, the most heroic and praiseworthy achievement of his precocious pupils.

But brighter days have dawned upon our educational history, and a clearer conception of the nature and dignity of the teacher's work is now generally entertained. His true mission as an educator of mind is now recognized, and it is the teacher's duty to acquit himself as one worthy of such a high mission.

In the practical thoughts I propose to present, my aim shall be to aid the young teacher, *first*, to comprehend fully the nature and magnitude of the work he has undertaken to do; and, *secondly*, to make some suggestions as to the best means of accomplish-

ing it. And in doing so, I know that I shall say many things that are already familiar to the experienced teacher; but even he may be profited by the opportunity thus afforded him of comparing notes and exercising his talent for criticism—a sort of tilt at short sword gymnastics, of which all teachers are passionately fond.

Let me suppose, fellow teacher, that you are already in your school-room—that you have reduced to order the heterogeneous mass of material upon which you are to operate—that you have arranged the varied duties of each day in accordance with the well-known law of order, “A place for every thing and every thing in its place.” You are now ready to commence the great duty which gives to your profession its name and character. How appropriate then the question, Why have so many youth assembled at your bidding, and submitted themselves to your direction? Surely not that you may exhibit your skill in conducting them through a systematic routine of school duties, and then to dismiss them in as orderly a manner as a military officer disbands his troops by the command “Break ranks.” No, it is not for this that these youths with buoyant spirits and glad hearts, assemble in the school-room. They bring with them undying minds to be developed—to be awaked to a sense of their own immortality—souls to be trained for glory. This is your work. The difficulty attending its accomplishment is incalculable, its importance immeasurable, and the danger of error here is fearful.

The teacher is a sculptor. The marble which he must shape into humanity—perfect in all its features—harmonious in all its movements—and symmetrical in all its parts—is immaterial. The eye sees it not—the hand feels it not—and the implements with which he gives form and intellectuality to the mass are themselves invisible. And often, when he knows it not, the silent look—the moving hand—the hasty step—the heaving breast—are doing their work upon that imperishable marble for eternity. A Powers, with his chisel, brings from the quarried rock a Grecian Slave in chains, and nations celebrate his triumph in songs. But his sculpture—how inferior to that of the teacher in the skill requisite to its execution, in its worth or durability. In the one case, the friction of years will efface the memory of both sculptor and sculpture; in the other, eternity will be the only measurement of

the artist's praise, and the soul he has developed will remain forever, the immortal monument of his skill. To gain such praise as this should be the high ambition of every teacher. And I can not resist the conviction, that every devoted teacher as he stands for the first time before his pupils—his eye beaming with intelligence, and his soul impressed with the conscious greatness of his work—will thus soliloquize: Immortal mind is before me, to be developed in all its powers by my instrumentality. Its Author one—its destiny one—it is varied and diverse in its characteristic traits. All mind is not the *same* mind, else would my labors be much simplified. But, now, how complex the work upon which I enter! Yonder penetrating eye, looking out at the base of a high and philosophic *os frontis*, indicates a mind within, quick in apprehension, inquisitive, attentive, reflecting. That sprightly youth needs only to be shown the truth, and his mind, eager in its investigations, will appropriate it to its intellectual growth. Not so with that dull physiognomy beside him, sleepy in his looks, with hair dishevelled and encroaching upon the sacred precincts of the visual organ. I fear that if ever he experiences any consciousness of mental action, it is but the feeble quiverings of a mind whose drowsy energies lie concealed amid the tangled interstices of an inactive brain. To reach that mind—to wake it up to intellectual life and action—this is my work; and to accomplish it, what schemes must I devise—what patience cultivate! The roguish glance of that little Miss—what tales does it tell of mischief lurking within, awaiting a favorable opportunity for development, to vex a classmate, or to torment the teacher—all for the enjoyment of the occasion. The current of her thoughts must be changed—higher motives of action must stimulate her mental powers—and I must be the reforming spirit that will move upon the great deep of her soul, and impress upon it a sense of its high destiny. O, for inspiration for my work, else my feeble powers will fail in the accomplishment of the vast ends and purposes of my office. But why should I look around me? Every face reveals the lineaments of mental idiosyncrasy, and calls for some new device—some special application of teaching-tact to train the mind aright,—and I tremble before the colossal magnitude of my work. How fully do I now realize the truth of the stirring thoughts of the poet:

Yes, great their mission! as each morning shows  
 Bright visag'd boys and girls in goodly rows.  
 Let each school teacher think, before him sits  
 His Country's future Sages—Poets—Wits!  
 That yon dull boy, the noblest of the band,  
 Th' applause of listening Senates may command—  
 That yon fair girl, with form so frail and slight,  
 May prove a female WASHINGTON, and fight,  
 And conquer too, in her own cause of Woman's Right!  
 Some of the greatest men of this great land,  
 Sprang to high places from the teacher's stand!  
 See WEBSTER teaching in the Granite State;  
 See ADAMS well content on boys to wait;  
 Think, classic EVERETT taught a daily class;  
 That SEWARD saw small files before him pass;  
 That others, whose names can not pass away,  
 Were all school teachers in their early day.

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## WHAT IS THE SHAPE OF THE EARTH?

BY W. D. HENKLE.

The earliest astronomers regarded the earth as a sphere. Aristotle said: "As to the figure of the earth, it must necessarily be spherical." After the rotary motion of the earth was established, the conjecture of a flattening at the poles came as a matter of course. Newton in his "*Principia*" gave the ratio of the equatorial to the polar diameter 230 : 229, and hence, "according to *Picart's* mensuration, \* \* \* the earth will be higher at the equator than at the poles by 85,472 feet, or  $17\frac{1}{6}$  miles." The measurements of the first Cassini in a geometrical survey of France between 1680 and 1716, made a degree to the south of Paris 57,092 toises, but to the north 56,960 toises. This result led to the conclusion that the earth is a *prolate spheroid*, or is elevated at the poles. In 1751 Lacaille measured an arc at the Cape of Good Hope, where he found the degree at the parallel of  $34^{\circ}$  to be nearly the same as at  $49^{\circ}$  in France, fifteen degrees farther from the equator. This led to the conclusion that the southern hemisphere is flatter than the northern, and of a different internal

constitution. Later and more accurate measurements in France showed that a degree is longer north of Paris than south of it, thus corroborating the conclusions drawn from a great many other measurements made in different parts of the northern hemisphere. The anomalous result of Lacaille's measurement in southern Africa, was unexplained for nearly a century, although the accuracy of the measurement was strongly suspected. About the middle of this century, British measurements with all the modern improved methods revealed the fact that nearly all Lacaille's anomaly was produced by *mountain attraction* on the plumb-line.

Prof. Airy, the Royal Astronomer of England, gave in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, 1831, considering thirteen arcs, two of which were in Sweden, one in Russia, one in Hanover, one in England, two in France, one in Italy, one in the United States (Mason and Dixon's), two in India, one in Peru, and one in southern Africa, for the equatorial diameter of the earth 7,925.648 miles, and for the polar 7,899.170. Bessel by taking six of these same measurements and four others gave 7,925.604 miles for the equatorial diameter and 7,999.110 for the polar. These dimensions are those now generally adopted. It should be remarked that no two measurements yet made, give the same dimensions to the earth. It is by a combination of the equations of condition by the method of least squares, that the problem is solved. The operation is extremely laborious. Taking the dimensions given by Schmidt, based on twenty arcs, in No. 213 of *Schumacher's Astronomische Nachrichten* (Bessel's were given in Nos. 333, 334, 335, 438 of the same)—namely, 7,924.873, 7,898.634—we have the measurements of no one of the twenty arcs agreeing with what it should be for an ellipsoid with these dimensions, the measured lengths varying from 73 to 282 feet in excess, and from 46 to 411 in deficiency, of the computed lengths.

Although Maclaurin demonstrated in Chap. IV, second volume of his *Fluxions*, first published in 1742, that an oblate spheroid is a figure that satisfies the conditions of equilibrium in case of a revolving homogeneous body, whose particles attract one another according to the law of the inverse square of the distance, yet it must be remembered that it has not yet been proved that there are not other figures in which the equilibrium might subsist. "Indeed, it has not even been proved that the sphere is the only



figure which could be assumed by a body at perfect rest, and whose molecules are subjected to no other forces than their mutual attractions."

The evidence is tolerably strong, that the earth is not an oblate spheroid. The latest and most accurate measurements in England and France reveal the fact "that when portions of the arcs at particular places are considered separately, the length of the degree appears to increase on going southward." Some measurements seem to indicate that the meridian is not an ellipse, but protuberant between  $40^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$ , thus making the degrees of meridians shorter and the degrees of parallels longer. Sir John Herschel says the difference between the measured and computed lengths of degrees are "too great to be referred to error of measurement." He also says that the earth "is not *exactly* an ellipsoid, or any known geometrical solid."

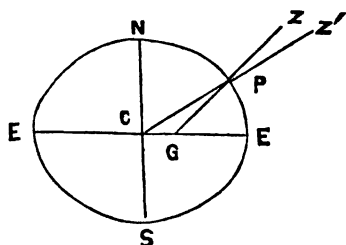
Humboldt, in his *Cosmos*, speaks of "the elliptical spheroid of revolution, to which the irregular figure of the earth most closely approximates." "The true figure of the earth is to a regular figure as the uneven surfaces of water in motion are to the even surface of water at rest."

Carl Ritter, in his recent work on Comparative Geography, says: "Later investigations have determined that the spheroidal form is only an approximation to perfect accuracy, and that the earth is a polyhedron, whose exact number of zodes has not yet been determined, and which may prove indeterminable. Bessel has assigned, as the great task of science for the coming century, to settle this question with perfect exactness." "The surprising accuracy of modern instruments and modern investigations, applied to meridian circles and parallels of latitude, have determined the fact that the spheroid is not a perfect one (just as so often in nature the ideal is rather striven after than attained), but an irregular polyhedron of an indeterminate number of sides."

I have also heard that the astronomer Schubert has claimed that the parallels of latitude should be considered as ellipses as well as the meridians.

Chauvenet, in his *Astronomy*, vol. I, p. 103, says: "It has recently been attempted to show that the earth differs sensibly from an ellipsoid of revolution." (See *Astr. Nach.*, No. 1303.) Perhaps Schubert is the person referred to.

Notwithstanding the difficulties above alluded to, it is proper to assume *provisionally*, at least, that the earth is an ellipsoid of revolution. My principal object in preparing this article has been to explain to those teachers (and they are not few) that have difficulty in understanding that an increase in the length of degrees from the equator to the poles suggests that the earth is an oblate spheroid, and not a prolate spheroid.



Draw an ellipse which will in theory represent a terrestrial meridian. The shorter axis will represent the earth's axis and the longer axis an equatorial diameter. Mark the poles by N and S, the extremities of the equatorial diameter by E, and the crossing of the axes by C. Let P be any point of the meridian between N and E. Draw within the ellipse from P, a perpendicular to the curve. It will meet CE at some point G, between C and E. Draw also a line from P to C.

The angle PGE is the *geographical latitude* of P, and PCE is the *geocentric latitude*. GP produced till it meets the heavens in Z, gives Z, the *geographical zenith*. CP produced in like manner gives Z', the *geocentric zenith*. It is plain that the geographical latitude of a place is always greater than the geocentric latitude, except at N or E. The geocentric latitude falls short of the geographical most at a little above  $45^\circ$  of geographical latitude. Taking the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameter as 229 : 230, by the use of calculus I have found that the greatest difference between the two kinds of latitude is when P has a geographical latitude of  $45^\circ 7' 29''$ , or a geocentric latitude of  $44^\circ 52' 30'' 24'''$ , the difference being  $14' 58'' 26'''$ . With Bessels dimensions, the greatest difference would be about  $11' 31''$ . Tables have been calculated showing for every degree from zero to  $30^\circ$  and from  $60^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$ , and for every 10 minutes from  $30^\circ$  to  $60^\circ$ , of geographical latitude,—the amount to be subtracted to reduce the latitude to geocentric latitude. The difference decreases both ways from  $45^\circ$  to  $24''.02$  at  $1^\circ$ , and  $24''.18$  at  $89^\circ$ . The elliptical arcs corresponding to one geocentric degree decrease from being equal to  $1^\circ 00' 24''.18$  geographical at the equator to  $59' 35''.98$  geographical at the

poles. This would seem to indicate that the geocentric degrees *decrease* from the equator to the poles, but it must be remembered that each geographical degree measures more on the meridian as we approach the poles. Whether  $58^{\circ} 35' 35''.98$  at the poles would measure as much arc as  $1^{\circ} 00' 24''.18$  at the equator, can be determined by integral calculus. The solution indicates what might have been guessed by an ocular examination of an ellipse, that the geocentric degrees have shorter elliptic arcs as they approach the poles. This is why many teachers think that an increase of degree from the equator to the poles does not indicate an oblate spheroid. They have never studied mathematical astronomy enough to know the difference between geographical and geocentric latitude. They have no idea of any other latitude except geocentric, little thinking that this is not the latitude referred to in the measurements of a degree.

If the earth is an oblate spheroid, the geocentric degrees must decrease from the equator to the poles, but the geographical degrees must increase. That the geographical degrees must increase is evident from the following consideration: The larger a circle the greater a degree of arc. The larger the circle the flatter the circumference. Hence if the earth is flattened toward the poles, the elliptic arc of a meridian near the poles more nearly coincides with a larger circle than it does near the equator.

Before closing this article, I should state that the line PZ is theoretically that of a plumb-line. A mistake of one second in the direction of a plumb-line, or a deflection of one second from the true zenith, would indicate a latitude one second in error, which would be equivalent to about one hundred feet on the ground. These two sources of error may serve to explain some of the anomalies in measurement. Deviations in the plumb-line would be caused by local irregularities both in the figure and density of the earth. Experience has shown (see U. S. Coast Survey Report for 1853, p. 14) "that the plumb-line mostly deviates from the normal to the regular ellipsoid, not only toward the north or south, but also toward the east or west." It is plain, as Chauvet says, that no safe deductions as to the departure of the earth from an ellipsoid can be "made, until the anomalous deviations of the plumb-line have been eliminated from the discussion." It should, however, be stated, that these deviations are small, seldom reaching more than  $3''$  in any direction.

## REPORT ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

OFFICE OF STATE COMMISSIONER OF COMMON SCHOOLS,  
Columbus, Ohio, January 26, 1866.

To His Excellency JACOB D. Cox, Governor of Ohio :

The following joint resolution was passed by the General Assembly, March 13, 1865 :

*"Resolved by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, That the Commissioner of Common Schools be and he hereby is authorized and requested to report to the Governor, to be by him laid before the next General Assembly, the organization and results of the best Normal Schools in this country, and so far as may be practicable, in other countries ; and also the best plan of organizing one or more efficient Normal Schools in this State."*

In compliance with this request of the General Assembly, I respectfully submit the following Report :

During the past summer I spent several weeks in visiting Normal Schools in other States, with a view of making myself more familiar with their organization and the practical results of their training. The following are the schools visited : New Jersey State Normal School, Connecticut State Normal School, Massachusetts State Normal Schools at Westfield and Framingham, New York State Normal School at Albany, and the Training School at Oswego. I also visited the Normal School of the city of Boston and the one at Philadelphia. I also had interviews with Mr. Richards, Principal of the Illinois State Normal University, and Mr. Wickersham, Principal of the Pennsylvania Normal School at Millersville. I had previously visited the State Normal School of Michigan, located at Ypsilanti.

In pursuing my inquiries, I also took special pains to confer with educators of large experience and observation, who are not connected with Normal Schools, either as managers or teachers. I acknowledge myself specially indebted to Hon. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, whose familiar acquaintance with the Normal Schools of this country and Europe enabled him to put me in possession of information of great value. Through his thoughtful courtesy I had the privilege of meeting, at Boston, Rev. James Frazer, of England, who had been sent to this country by the Royal Commission on Education, to investigate our common school system. Mr. Frazer kindly favored me with a full and minute account of the Training Schools of England, and the preparation for admission to them by a system of pupil-teacher apprenticeship.\*

\* The following is Mr. Frazer's account of the pupil-teacher system, as given in an address before the Ohio Teachers' Association at Cincinnati :

"A promising pupil in an Elementary School—boy or girl, as the case may be—of not less than thirteen years of age, is taken and apprenticed to the principal-teacher for a period of five years. Such scholar is employed as a monitor under the principal-teacher, and is called a *pupil* in relation to the teacher, and a *teacher* in relation to the school, thus making up the hybrid appellation 'a pupil-teacher.' At one time the Government paid this pupil teacher, but since the 'Revised Code,' his salary has been made to devolve upon the local managers. It would begin, perhaps, at \$50 a year, and would rise at the rate of about ten dollars a year, to the end of the term. Pupil-teachers may be employed in any school, and must be employed, under pain of forfeit-

Training Schools exist in most of the Dioceses of England, and like the Elementary Schools, are in connection with some religious denomination, most of them with the Church of England. Like the Elementary Schools, they are supported by local voluntary contributions, largely supplemented by aid from the Government. The course of training is two years, the object being partly to give the students accessions of actual knowledge, and partly to familiarize them with the best methods of teaching and organizing schools.

The examination for admission, which is before a Government Inspector, lasts four days, and embraces all the subjects ordinarily taught in the Elementary Schools. At the end of each year of the training course, students have to undergo a thorough examination. If they pass the examination at the end of the second year, they are free to go out and take charge of a school, with the title of a "probationary teacher." They continue in the same school, with this title, two years, during which time they are visited twice by the Inspector. If his reports respecting their aptitude and practical skill as teachers are favorable, they then receive a graded certificate, valid for five years, subject to revision as to grade at the end of the fifth year, according to the Inspector's opinion of their progress and success as teachers.

Normal or Training Schools similar to those of England are established throughout Europe, and are regarded as an essential part of every system of public instruction. Normal Schools are also established in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and each of the Canadas—the one at Toronto being probably the best equipped Normal School on the continent.

In this country Normal Schools are now established under State direction and support in *sixteen* States, as follows: Massachusetts has *four*, two opened in 1839, one in 1840, and a fourth in 1854, beside the excellent Training School sustained by the city of Boston; New York has two, one at Albany, opened in 1845, and another at Oswego, which first received State aid in 1864; Connecticut one, opened in 1848; Michigan one, opened in 1849; Rhode Island one, opened in 1854; New Jersey one, opened in 1855; Illinois one, opened in 1857; Pennsylvania three, one first receiving State aid in 1859, another in 1861, and a third in 1862, beside the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia; Minnesota one, opened in 1860; Iowa one, opened in 1860 (department in State University); California one, opened in 1863; Maine two, one opened in 1864, and a

ure, in all schools where the average attendance exceeds eighty. The school hours are generally five hours a day for five days in the week, and the principal-teacher is bound to give the pupil-teachers one hour's instruction a day out of school hours. You will at once observe that this last feature, as well as the higher rate of salary paid, and the period during which the apprenticeship continues, constitutes the characteristic of the 'pupil-teacher,' as distinguished from the 'monitor' of Bell and Lancaster. I should have added that at the close of each year of his apprenticeship, at the annual visit of the Inspector, the pupil-teacher is subjected to a progressive examination, according to a previously defined schedule of subjects, and that his salary for the past year depends upon his passing this examination.

"Well, at the end of this five years' apprenticeship, the pupil-teacher is supposed to make a choice, whether he will follow the profession of a teacher, or abandon it for some other more inviting career. He is considered quite free to choose, as the salary he has received has been no more than adequate to the services he has rendered. If, however, he decides to adhere to the profession of which he has been serving the apprenticeship, his natural course is to enter what you call a 'Normal,' but what we generally denominate a 'Training' School."

second about opening: Wisconsin one, opened in 1865; Kansas one, opened in 1865; Maryland one, established by law in 1865; and Indiana one, established by an act which passed the Legislature in December, 1865. South Carolina established a Normal School before the war, but having other business than the right education of her youth to attend to, abandoned the enterprise.

It will thus be seen that of the States that have maintained for any considerable length of time a free school system, all but *three* have one or more Normal Schools established under State authority. The three exceptions are *New Hampshire, Vermont and Ohio.\**

In most, if not all of the States, the Normal Schools are supplemented by Teachers' Institutes, supported to a greater or less extent by State aid. In New York the entire expenses of the Institutes are paid out of the State Treasury.

The plan on which most of the State Normal Schools are organized is simple. In States which have not a State Board of Education, they are established under the direction and control of a Board of Trustees, called, in some of the States, "Board of Normal Regents," who are empowered to determine the course of instruction and training, to employ teachers, etc. The current expenses, including teachers' salaries, fuel, repairs, etc., are met by State appropriations. Students pay their own board and other contingent expenses, the same as pupils do who attend any other public school. The law in Pennsylvania requires that each Normal School shall have boarding-houses capable of accommodating three hundred boarders—and board is thus furnished the pupils at a very reasonable price. In England the students at the Training Schools are expected to pay from one-fifth to one-fourth of the cost of their instruction and maintenance, the balance being defrayed from funds contributed by friends of the Training School, and by money appropriated by the Government.

The conditions of admission to the Normal Schools of this country vary in different States. In most a fair knowledge of the common branches is pre-

\* In 1854 Cyrus McNeely, of Hopedale, Harrison county, Ohio, donated to the Ohio State Teachers' Association buildings, land and apparatus, valued at ten thousand dollars, on condition that the Association should raise an equal sum for the purpose of establishing a Normal School. The enterprise received the earnest support of the late Lorin Andrews, and several other prominent members of the Association, and was undertaken. The Normal School was opened in November, 1855, but proving too much of a financial burthen for the Association to carry, was permitted to pass into private hands. It is still in operation, and is doing a valuable service for the schools of the section of the State in which it is located.

The Southwestern Normal School at Lebanon, Ohio, was opened in 1855, under the direction of a board of trustees. Its scope is now largely widened, including a collegiate department and business institute, as well as a teachers' department. It has been attended by many hundreds of teachers, and has unquestionably exerted a potent influence upon the character of the schools in that section of the State. It is now in successful operation.

The Western Reserve Normal School at Milan, Ohio, was opened in 1858, but my acquaintance with the institution is too limited to permit me to speak of its professional character or influence. It is believed to be doing a good service for the schools of its locality.

The number of teachers that have attended these different institutions, which are, of necessity, largely academic in their character, is evidence of an encouraging demand for professional training, and the good accomplished by them in their respective localities, is an assurance that the influence of a State Normal School of a high professional character, would be wide and potent.

scribed. In Connecticut, and I believe the same is true in New Jersey, the school authorities of the different towns select and examine candidates, and their certificate entitles the holder to a seat in the Normal School. The practical working of this plan is not satisfactory. Pupils are admitted who, from a want of scholastic attainments, are unfitted to enter upon the course of training. A want of sufficient scholarship on the part of those who seek admission to the Normal Schools, is unquestionably one of the most serious defects in the American system of Normal training. In Michigan pupils entering the Normal School have to make a pledge of intention to teach in the common schools of that State for a specified period. The same is true in some other States.

The course of instruction in most of the Normal Schools of this country is two years, with a one year's course in a few of them, for teachers of primary schools. While the one single object is to increase the teaching power of the student, the exercises have practically a four-fold aim :

1. To impart to the student a thorough *teaching* knowledge of all the branches ordinarily taught in common schools. This includes not only a mastery of the subjects *as knowledge*, which is the first requisite for successful teaching, but also a mastery of them *as subjects to be taught to others*. This is the one distinctive idea which runs through every lesson and exercise.

2. To impart to the prospective teacher a practical knowledge of the *guiding principles* of his art, and to enable him to reduce such principles to something like a philosophical system. In other words, the second aim is to teach the *science* of education. This is usually sought to be accomplished by lectures.

3. To impart to the teacher a knowledge of the best methods of instruction and government, including the methods specially applicable to each stage of the child's progress and to each branch of knowledge. This part of the course is sometimes united with the first, each recitation being conducted with a view of unfolding the true method of teaching the topic. But in all Normal Schools where instruction in methods of teaching is made duly prominent, separate exercises are also devoted to the subject.

4. To impart to the student *skill* in the art of teaching by an application of his knowledge of principles and methods in *actual practice*. For this purpose most Normal Schools have a Model or Experimental Department, in which the students practice under the supervision and criticism of a skillful teacher. In the best Training Schools these model-lessons, as they are called, are made the basis of instruction in methods. In some Normal Schools the practice of the students is obtained by giving model-lessons to their own classes.

In the different Normal Schools visited, I observed a very great difference in the relative attention given to these four parts or aims of the course of training; in the majority of them, however, the first received the chief attention. In the Training Schools at Oswego and Boston, the last three made up the course—an adequate knowledge of the branches to be taught being required as a condition of admission. In the reorganization of the Oswego Training School on a wider basis, it is proposed to provide for a thorough review of the different branches as a *preparation* for the regular course of professional training.

I am strongly tempted to enter more fully into details, but as a general outline of the plan of organization and course of instruction of Normal Schools

will best serve the purpose of this report, I pass to the second inquiry of the General Assembly.

#### RESULTS OF NORMAL SCHOOL TRAINING.

What are the practical results of Normal School training in Europe and in this country? Does the success of the Normal Schools that have been established afford substantial and conclusive proof of their value as practical agencies for the preparation of teachers? The only difficulty in answering these inquiries arises from the abundance and high character of the testimony at hand. The experiment of specially training persons for the teacher's office has been tried on a scale so wide, under such a diversity of condition, and with such a uniformity of results, that the evidence of its success is not only manifold but super-abundant for citation as testimony.

The first school in Europe for the preparation of teachers was founded by the good Franke, at Halle, in Prussia, about the year 1704. The success of the experiment may be inferred from the well authenticated fact that the teachers from this school, spreading over Northern Germany, prepared the way for the great revolution in public instruction which was accomplished during the reign of Frederick William III. Since Franke's successful experiment, Normal or Training Schools for teachers have multiplied in Europe until they have become an essential part of every system of public instruction. The Training Schools connected with the Elementary Schools of Great Britain are regarded as one of the two "corner-stones" upon which the system rests. The larger the experience and the wider the observation of English educators, the more emphatic is their testimony upon this subject.

Hon. Edgerton Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction of Upper Canada, says:

"Wherever Normal Schools have been established, it has been found that the demand for regularly trained teachers has exceeded the supply which the Normal Schools have been able to provide. This is so in the United States and France; it is most painfully and pressingly so in England, Ireland and Scotland. I was told by the Head Masters of the Great Normal Schools in London, in Dublin, in Glasgow and Edinburgh, that such was the demand for pupils of the Normal Schools as teachers, that in many instances they found it impossible to retain them in the Normal Schools during the prescribed course, even when it was limited to a year."

The first Normal School in this country was opened in July, 1839, at Lexington, Massachusetts,—now removed to Framingham. During the same year a second Normal School was opened at Barre, now at Westfield, and during the next year a third at Bridgewater. The success of these pioneer American Normal Schools is sufficiently attested by the fact that they are still cherished by the State as the only unfailing reliance for supplying the schools with well-qualified teachers.

Horace Mann, than whom no man was a more competent witness, pronounced even the earlier success of the Normal Schools of Massachusetts a "practical demonstration" of their high value as agencies for supplying the common schools with competent teachers, and emphatically declared them "the one in-



dispensable thing for carrying forward a system of common schools." In his eleventh annual report as Secretary of the State Board of Education, he says :

"These institutions [Normal Schools] are steadily fulfilling their great mission. They are gradually revolutionizing the methods and processes of instruction, improving its quality and enlarging its quantity *throughout the State*."

The highest authorities in the State, among whom are Josiah Quincy, Edward Everett, George S. Boutwell, Mark Hopkins, Barnard Sears, George B. Emerson, Joseph White, Birdsey G. Northrup, John D. Philbrick, and Governor Andrew, all concur in the opinion that they have been eminently successful and useful in preparing for the schools a superior class of teachers.

Mr. Northrup, who, for nine years, has been the Traveling Agent of the State Board, and who has probably seen more Normal teachers *at work in the school-room* than any other man in America, says :

"The more I visit schools and observe their methods and results, the stronger is my conviction of the necessity and usefulness of Normal Schools. My observations in schools and among the people assure me that our Normal Schools have widely diffused better ideas of education and awakened increased popular interest in the cause of public instruction.

"They have greatly elevated the standard of qualification for teaching, both among teachers and in the popular estimate. The Normal graduates, as a general fact, have shown greater thoroughness and skill in teaching, more system in arrangement of studies and in the programme of daily duties, more enthusiasm in their work and devotion to the profession."

But the most satisfactory evidence of the superior qualifications and success of the Normal teachers of Massachusetts as a class was called out in 1859 by an ignorant and ridiculously abortive attack upon the Normal Schools. Ex-Governor Boutwell, who was then Secretary of the Board of Education, sent circulars to all the towns [townships] in the State, soliciting from the school committees [boards of education] a full and free expression of their views as to the success or failure of Normal graduates as teachers. *All but eleven of the replies received were favorable to Normal Schools.* The testimony is found in the twenty-second annual report of the Board of Education. Such an indorsement of the superior success of professionally trained teachers, after twenty years' trial, by the school authorities of an *entire State*, is certainly evidence not to be gainsayed or resisted.

Equally conclusive is the testimony respecting the skill and success of the graduates of the State Normal School of Connecticut. In 1862, inconsiderate and wild charges were made against the Normal School in the General Assembly (not wilder, however, than Assemblymen had sometimes made against the entire common school system) and the Joint Standing Committee on Education was instructed to inquire into its affairs and management. At the May session, in 1863, this committee submitted a carefully prepared report, in which they give the following emphatic testimony :

"Testimony has been received from members of Boards of Education, District Committees, Principals of large Public Schools, and others interested in educational pursuits, from every county in the State—testimony which is confirmed by a careful investigation of all seeming opposition—that, as a class, the

graduates and under-graduates of our State Normal School are more sought for as teachers, pass better examinations, are stricter disciplinarians, are more thorough and systematic in teaching, waste less time in educational experiments, are more ready to improve by suggestions, have more laudable pride in their profession, show larger results, and give to school committees, parents and guardians better satisfaction than teachers from other sources."

Of the large number of statements received from the school visitors in the towns [townships] of the State, only *one* was unfavorable to the Normal teachers.

The Board of Trustees of the State Normal School of Rhode Island, in a late report to the General Assembly, say:

"The almost uniform testimony is in favor of the marked superiority of teachers from Normal Schools. The sentiments of the people in the localities where they have taught, ranges from the simple expression of 'favorable,' to the strongest and most enthusiastic terms of satisfaction. It is not pretended that Normal graduates never make failures. Some of those who have left Cambridge, Andover, West Point and Annapolis, have failed. Yet nobody doubts but the majority of those who have attended these institutions have become better lawyers, divines, soldiers and sailors than they would have been without the advantages offered there."

The above testimony is fully corroborated by all the information I have been able to collect upon the subject. No one who candidly considers testimony like this—and it might be increased to almost any extent, and made to include every State and country that has made the experiment—can resist the conclusion, that the special professional training of teachers in Normal Schools is eminently advantageous and fruitful, largely increasing their success and usefulness. And this overwhelming evidence, be it remembered, is the result of very imperfect methods of professional training and instruction, since our Normal Schools are, as yet, by no means a full realization of what is desirable and practicable in this direction.

#### NECESSITY OF SPECIAL AGENCIES FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

This leads me to a fundamental fact in the successful administration of a system of public instruction—one that lies back of and beneath all the inquiries that have been considered. The one *vital* condition of a good school is a *good teacher*. Other conditions are important; this is essential. School houses and apparatus, text-books and courses of study, classification and supervision, are indeed valuable agencies and conditions, but they are all inadequate until vitalized by the informing spirit of the teacher. Hence, in a system of education the advancement of the teacher is increasing success; his want of progress, failure.

The distinguished M. Guizot, then Minister of Public Instruction in France, once said: "All the provisions hitherto described would *be of no effect* if we took no pains to secure for the public school *an able master*." Victor Cousin, another able Minister of Public Instruction in France, is still more emphatic: "The best plans of instruction can not be executed except by the instrumentality of *good teachers*, and the State has done *nothing* for popular education,

if it does not watch that those who devote themselves to teaching be well prepared. I attach the greatest importance to Normal Schools, and I consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them." Dr. Channing, in 1837, said: "The most crying want of this Commonwealth [Massachusetts] is that of accomplished teachers. We boast of our schools, but our schools do comparatively little, for want of educated instructors. *Without good teachers, a school is but a name.*" Said Horace Mann, in alluding to the means for improving common schools: "But the *great object* for carrying the benign work of reform to our schools *must be the teacher himself.* No fullness in the qualifications of others can be the supplement of *any material deficiency in him.*"

Testimony like this might be multiplied until the name of every educator who has written upon the subject, is cited. Indeed, the propositions we have stated, if not self-evident, are the plain deductions of universal experience, and, as such, need no other proof. They are accepted educational axioms.

But in order that a system of common schools may be supplied with competent, efficient teachers, such teachers must be raised up and fitted for their office *by special preparatory training.* The emphatic testimony of educators on this point has become "like the voice of many waters." Everywhere, those whose experience and observation make them competent to decide such a question, agree that the high vocation of the teacher demands special and thorough preparation.

But, independent of all testimony of this kind, it stands to reason that he who would undertake the awakening, guiding and enlightening of the human soul, should bring to so great a task special preparatory training. In every pursuit of life, demanding any considerable degree of skill and knowledge, the universal sense of mankind demands special preliminary preparation. The artizan has his years of apprenticeship, and the legal, medical, and other professions, their schools of special training and practice. The young attorney whose only credentials are natural aptitude and a college diploma, finds himself briefless; and the quack, who, without special training, has the audacity to enter the sick chamber and lay his unpracticed hands upon the human vitals, is (or ought to be) denounced as a criminal. The building of forts and monitors is not entrusted to house carpenters, and a mastery of the architectural art is the talisman that transmutes ledges of rocks into temples of strength and beauty. Who, then, shall attempt to build up this immortal temple of the soul without special preparation for so great and difficult a work?

A second argument in favor of professional training for the teacher, is based upon the *complex nature* of the work he has to perform. If our whole theory of education is not a delusion, it is the science of sciences. As an art it has no equal, either in susceptibility of improvement or the knowledge and skill required for its successful prosecution. Every step of the teacher's work demands a knowledge of the faculties of the human mind, the order of their development, and the kind of knowledge and training required at each successive stage of such unfolding. True education is, in a word, based upon principles that go to the very core of mental and moral science, and sweep over all human knowledge and progress. Who, in view of such facts as these, will pretend

that a clear and definite knowledge of the principles that underlie the work of education, is not an important preparation for the teacher's high vocation? Who will claim that an examination of tuitional methods, in the light of these principles, would not greatly assist the young teacher in determining and regulating his own methods?

A third argument is *the nature of the material* upon which the teacher has to work. "A workman," says Mann, "should understand two things in regard to the subject matter of his work: first, its natural properties, qualities and powers; and, secondly, the means of modifying and regulating them with a view to improvement." But what material workman ever yet touched, with hammer or chisel, such materials as those the teacher has to fashion into forms of power and beauty? What laws so hidden, and at the same time so essential for guidance, as those which must direct his every stroke? How often, through ignorance of the nature of the human mind, its susceptibilities and laws of growth, are a teacher's most zealous efforts wasted—that which promised to be the rich fruit of knowledge and virtue turning to ashes in his unskillful and misdirected hands!

Finally, the *infinite value* of the material placed in the teacher's hands renders a practical knowledge of its nature and qualities of the highest importance. The block of marble, spoiled by an unskillful blow, may be replaced; but the soul, marred and destroyed by ignorant handling, has no substitute. The gold and diamonds of earth can not replace it. Every line of deformity, every trace of the misguided chisel, is made upon it for eternity. Like the broken flower or the consumed diamond, the soul's purity and glory, when once lost, can never, save by Divine grace, be restored. Surely, those who may be called to the teacher's office should bring to such a high responsibility special and thorough preparation.

It is not, of course, claimed that we can have no successful teachers without the agency of professional training. Here and there we find teachers of great natural aptitude for their work, achieving the highest success without such training. Nor is it claimed that any course of preparation can make an eminently successful teacher out of one who is seriously wanting in native teaching ability. A degree of natural aptitude is essential to the highest success of the teacher, whatever may be the advantages of training and experience; but this is equally true, as Edward Everett has remarked, in every pursuit or calling—in law, physic and divinity, in trade, manufactures and farming, and in the military art—and is never thought to militate against either the necessity or value of special preparation; since it is the function of all training, general or special, to develop and equip native powers—not to create them.

#### NECESSITY OF SPECIAL AGENCIES FOR THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN OHIO.

In the light of the foregoing truths and experiences, it is evident that the most vital question involved in the improvement of the schools in Ohio is this: *How can these schools be supplied with competent, efficient teachers?* That they are not thus supplied is painfully evident. No one can question the assertion that there exists in them a wide-spread and lamentable lack of well-

qualified teachers. The annual returns of the different boards of examiners show that only about one-half of the teachers certificated by them possess sufficient scholarship to secure a creditable grade of certificate—to say nothing of their lack of professional knowledge, skill and experience. It is scarcely necessary to add that this is the result of a sufficiently low standard of measurement. It is true, there are found in our schools many excellent teachers—not a few who are an honor to their calling and a blessing to the cause of education; but the general fact is lamentably true, that the great body of the teachers of the State possess exceedingly limited qualifications.

Now it is manifest that whatever else we may do, so long as this state of things exists, we shall fail to “secure a *thorough and efficient* system of common schools throughout the State,” as is enjoined by our State Constitution. It is true that the task of supplying our schools with competent teachers is a difficult one, but we must succeed in it, or we shall surely fail to accomplish what we have undertaken in the direction of universal education. And let it be remembered, for our encouragement, that just to the extent we do succeed in this task, to that extent shall we also be successful in increasing the efficiency of our school system.

Our experience, thus far, is conclusive that we can not depend upon ordinary school agencies to raise up a supply of qualified teachers for our schools. The general improvement of the schools of the State through the introduction of the principles of classification and gradation, the establishment of high schools, etc., has unquestionably reacted upon teachers, greatly increasing their qualifications and efficiency; but all experience shows that these agencies are entirely inadequate, even in those localities in which they have been carried to their highest perfection.

Nor can we longer fold our arms and depend upon the philosophy of Dogberry to vitalize and improve our school system. Nature has an exceedingly limited supply of self-furnishing and self-guiding teaching ability; or she is very chary of it. It is sadly evident that the great majority of teachers do not come from her hands fully endowed and panoplied for their work, as Minerva is fabled to have sprung from the brain of Jupiter. The truth is, neither natural aptitude, nor experience in teaching, nor good school instruction, nor good examples of teaching, can be depended upon to provide a sufficiency of competent teachers for our schools. The first two of these agencies are *fixed* quantities, so far as our efforts can effect them, and the last two must be increased and widened mainly by a corresponding increase of well qualified teachers, which is not unlike the fruitless endeavor to *intensify a cause by first increasing its effects!*

I have thus shown the absolute necessity of well-qualified teachers in an efficient system of education; the wide-spread and lamentable lack of such teachers in the schools of this State; the inability of ordinary school agencies to supply these schools with competent teachers; and the necessity and practicability of special professional training as a preparation for the teacher's office. I am carried by the force of an irresistible logic, and by the plain teachings of experience, one step farther. *The State of Ohio must provide special agencies for the training of competent teachers for the schools under its con-*

*trol.* This is the practical conclusion of the whole matter. The State, in assuming the responsibility of maintaining a system of common schools for the right education of its citizens, has also taken upon itself the consequent duty of providing these schools with capable, efficient teachers—a duty which can not be ignored, and which ought not to be longer neglected. “An adequate knowledge of the *theory and practice of teaching*” is now made by law an essential qualification of every common school teacher, and it is the imperative duty of the State to provide facilities for acquiring such important knowledge.

In the firm belief that the establishment of an efficient system of professional instruction and training for the teachers of the State is an essential measure for the adequate improvement and elevation of our school system, I take pleasure in commending the following plan of organizing such a system to the favorable consideration of the General Assembly:

#### PLAN FOR PROVIDING NORMAL INSTRUCTION IN OHIO.

A system of professional training for the teachers of this State, to be in the highest degree efficient and successful, must place such training within reach of every teacher. It must also provide facilities of a high character for the training of a superior class of teachers, whose example and influence shall vitalize the profession and lift it up to a higher standard. Without entering upon a discussion of these propositions, I will proceed to describe three agencies which, taken together, present such a system. They are: 1. County Teachers' Institutes. 2. District (Judicial) Normal Institutes. 3. State Normal School.

1. *County Teachers' Institutes.*—A well conducted Teachers' Institute, bearing directly and practically upon the duties of the school room, is an important instrumentality for the professional instruction of teachers. Its value has been tested by more than twenty years' trial in every State blessed with a free school system.

I think I am safe in saying that no other agency has done more toward increasing the professional attainments of the great body of American teachers than this. In the State of New York, where it first originated, an Institute continuing in session two weeks, is held annually in every county. The example of other States might also be cited.

The amendatory school law of 1864, requires each applicant for a teacher's certificate to pay a fee of fifty cents as a condition of examination, and sets apart most (at least two-thirds) of the funds arising from such fees for the support of Teachers' Institutes in the several counties. In the larger counties this fund is sufficient to hold a good Institute each year, but in the smaller counties it is not adequate to meet all expenses. The new system is not yet in full operation, but it promises much for the future.

The great difficulty now to be overcome is the lack of experienced and competent institute superintendents and instructors. Very few teachers are capable of performing this important service, and those who are capable have, as a general rule, other duties which require their entire time. In several counties, arrangements for holding Institutes have had to be abandoned because the

committee could secure no competent person to take charge of them. Nine pressing invitations for assistance were on my table at the same time, only three of which could possibly be responded to favorably.

What is needed is a corps of experienced Institute instructors, capable of unfolding and illustrating by practical drills and lessons, the best methods of teaching the several branches of study to classes of different and varying capacities, and able to present clearly and systematically the *principles* which underlie such methods, as well as those which must guide the teacher in the higher duties of moral training and government. Such a corps of instructors going through the State, organizing and conducting Institutes in the more backward counties, and lending a helping hand wherever their assistance may be needed, would make the new Institute system a powerful agency for the better preparation of teachers, and, as a consequence, for the advancement of the school system.

But in order that such a corps of instructors may be put into the field, an appropriation by the State to assist in their support, is absolutely necessary. I would most earnestly repeat the recommendation made last year, that an appropriation sufficiently large to keep at least three competent instructors in the field, be made by the General Assembly. The teachers of the State are paying annually over \$8,000 for the support of Institutes. Could the State pay at least half this sum, the present Teachers' Institute fund would be made fruitful as a practical means for the better qualification of teachers.

2. *District Normal Institutes.*—County Teachers' Institutes have, of necessity, too brief sessions to afford such a systematic course of professional training as all our teachers need, and as many of them are willing to receive. Even when they are continued two weeks, there is little time for model-lessons and practical drills to illustrate methods of teaching. In other words, there is little time for professional *training*, the brief session of the Institute being required for *instruction* in the methods and principles of the art of teaching.

To meet this growing demand for a more thorough course of instruction and training than the County Institute can furnish, temporary Normal Institutes, continuing in session from four to six weeks, have been organized. So successful have been these Normal Institutes, that they have been organized in connection with several of the Normal Schools of the country.\* Eight such Insti-

\* The first Normal Institute of this character ever held in this country was convened at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1839, by Henry Barnard, then Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools for that State, at his own expense, "to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of Common School teachers." It was called a "Teachers' or Normal Class," and was so successful that Mr. Barnard, in giving an account of it in the Connecticut Common School Journal, for November, 1839, used the following language:

"We have no hesitation in saying that a judicious application of one-fifth of the sum appropriated unanimously by the House of Representatives to promote the education of teachers of Common Schools, in different sections of the State, would have accomplished more for the usefulness of the coming winter schools, and the ultimate prosperity of the school system, than the expenditure of half the avails of the School Fund in the present way. One thousand, at least, of the eighteen hundred teachers, would have enjoyed an opportunity of critically revising the studies which they will be called upon to teach, with a full explanation of all the principles involved, and with reference to the connection which one branch of knowledge bears to another, and also to the best methods of communicating each, and the adaptation of different

tutes were held in the State during the past summer, most of them, however, partook more of the character of brief schools for the review of the common branches, than of Institutes for the professional training of teachers. What is needed is a thorough and efficient system of Normal Institutes, largely professional in their character.

The plan I would respectfully recommend, is the organization of one such Normal Institute in each of the ten judicial districts of the State, a session to be held annually, at some convenient point. There will be little or no difficulty experienced in securing the use of suitable buildings and other accommodations without expense to the State. These will be gratuitously furnished by Boards of Education and the proprietors of private institutions of learning, for the purpose of securing the advantages of the Institute to their respective localities. The expense of instruction should be borne by the State, and this will require an appropriation of about \$400 to each Normal Institute held, making an annual aggregate of about \$4,000. I know of no way in which so small an expenditure for the elevation and increased efficiency of the school system can be made with certain promise of so large a return. These Normal Institutes held in different localities, would exert an influence which would soon permeate the entire school system.

3. *State Normal School.*—To complete the system of professional training recommended, there should be established at least one State Normal School of a high character. No system of Institutes, however complete and thorough, can alone accomplish what is needed. The length of their sessions is, at best, too limited, and the course of training too partial to raise up such a class of model teachers as are needed to lift common school instruction out of the deep ruts of routine, and to impart to it vitality and power. We need teachers trained by superior methods, that they, in turn, may become the teachers of teachers, and both by example and precept lift up the profession to a higher and truer standard. In short, we need a Normal School that shall be able to go beyond mere scholastic training and model examples of skillful teaching; that shall unfold thoroughly and systematically the *why* as well as the *how* of education—that shall teach its history, its philosophy, its methods.

It is true that one Normal School, however complete and thorough, will not be adequate for the accomplishment of a tithe of what is needed. But we must make a beginning, and, as all experience teaches, one thoroughly equipped Normal School will prove more efficient and valuable, even for the State at large, than two inadequately furnished for their mission, and consequently feeble and superficial in their influence and training. Besides the complete success of one Normal School will soon prepare the way for the organization of another.

The cost of establishing a first-class Normal School in this State will depend, of course, upon the cost of the grounds and buildings. The experi-

methods to different minds. They would have become familiar with the views and methods of experienced teachers, as they are carried out in the better conducted schools than those with which they had been familiar. They would have entered upon their schools with a rich fund of practical knowledge gathered from observation, conversation and lectures, and with many of their own defective, erroneous, and, perhaps, mischievous views, corrected and improved."



ence of several other States leads me to hope that these will be given by some community as a *bonus* to secure the location of the institution. The citizens of McLean county, Illinois, subscribed one hundred and forty-three thousand dollars for the sake of getting the Normal University of that State located in the county. Hon. Josiah Quincy, Boston, purchased a building and presented it to the Normal School at West Newton, Mass., now removed to Framingham. The city of Oswego has purchased and fitted up a fine building for the State Training School of New York. Other similar instances might be named.

The annual expense of maintaining a Normal School of a high character, when once established, will be about \$12,000. The current expenses of the Illinois Normal University, Michigan State Normal School, New Jersey State Normal School, and the New York State Normal School at Albany, are respectively about \$12,000 a year. This sum will be needed in this State.

It will thus be seen that the actual cost to the State of maintaining the entire system of Normal and Institute instruction which I have recommended, is only about \$20,000—a sum altogether insignificant when compared with the grand object it is to promote. The law making the appropriation may, with propriety, be entitled “An act appropriating \$20,000 to keep the half of \$3,000,000 from being squandered on incompetent teachers!”

Any attempt to present a complete course of study and training for the proposed Normal School, or to give the details of its organization, would carry me beyond the proper limits of this report. I would recommend that the organization and management of the entire Normal System, including the Normal School, the Normal Institutes, and the County Institutes, be entrusted to a Board of Trustees, or Regents, to consist of the Governor and Commissioner of Common Schools, as *ex officio* members, and three other persons to be appointed by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate, the same to be known as the “State Board of Normal Regents,” with full authority to appoint a general Institute superintendent, to act in conjunction with the Commissioner of Common Schools, and to employ Institute instructors—the amount expended each year being limited to the State appropriation for the purpose. In those counties which may have efficient local Institute associations, the management of the County Institutes should be left as now, to such associations, the State instructors rendering needed assistance. But I forbear entering further into details. Should the plan recommended receive the approbation of the General Assembly, I shall be happy to render any assistance in my power in determining the practical details of the system.

It is now nearly thirty years since Hon. Samuel Lewis, then State Superintendent of Common Schools, submitted to the General Assembly of Ohio, in answer to a resolution, a “Report on State Institutions for the Training of Teachers and Others,” in which he recommended the establishment of a State institution for the professional training of teachers, sustaining his recommendation by a cogency of argument worthy of the great cause he sought to promote.

Since the date of Mr. Lewis’ report, which presented to Ohio the enviable opportunity of becoming the American pioneer in the professional training of teachers, Normal Schools have been established by *sixteen* States—Ohio being outstripped by States that have not a tithe of her wealth or population. Even

new-born Maryland has made the Normal School an essential element of her new free-school system. Indeed, States that have been peopled since the General Assembly of Ohio passed the resolution referred to, have now their Normal Schools. Massachusetts is paying more than \$22,000 annually for the support of her Normal Schools and Institutes. New York pays annually from \$20,000 to \$25,000 for her Normal Schools, about \$17,000 for Teachers' classes in Academies, and from \$10,000 to 15,000 for Institutes. Illinois, even while the late civil war was raging, appropriated, in two installments, \$97,000 to pay, in part, for the magnificent building now occupied by her Normal University.

Why, in a matter so fundamental and vital as the supplying of her schools with qualified teachers, should Ohio longer fail to be the peer of her sister States? An efficient system of professional training for the teachers of the State is imperatively needed to infuse new life and vigor into the schools and elevate the standard of public instruction. I would most earnestly commend this subject to the favorable consideration of the General Assembly.

Respectfully submitted,

E. E. WHITE,  
*Commissioner of Common Schools.*

### OFFICIAL CIRCULAR.

OFFICE OF STATE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER, }  
COLUMBUS, OHIO, Feb. 10, 1866.

#### TO SCHOOL OFFICERS:

I feel justified in announcing that the new edition of the School Laws, the publication of which has been so long delayed by a want of paper, will be ready for distribution by the first of March. The requisite number of copies to supply each county will be sent the auditor, who will be authorized to furnish a copy to the clerk and treasurer of each board of education, the clerk of each sub-district, the clerk of each board of school examiners, and each county officer having duties to discharge under the school law. School superintendents desiring a copy, will also be supplied on application to the auditor of their respective counties or to this office.

A supply of blanks for teachers' term reports to township clerks was sent to county auditors for distribution several weeks since. The annual report of the Commissioner for 1865, will not be ready for distribution much before the first of April.

As this is my last official communication as Commissioner of Common Schools, I embrace the opportunity to express to school officers, teachers, and the friends of the school system generally, my heart-felt thanks for their generous confidence and co-operation, and to commend to their like regard and support the gallant soldier who succeeds me in this office.

E. E. WHITE,  
*Commissioner of Common Schools.*

## Editorial Department.

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BETWEEN the closing up of official duties and the labor and annoyance of moving and "fixing up" in a new office, we have found little time to devote to the preparation of this number. We are now fairly seated "under our own vine and fig tree," ready to serve the good cause as best we may. Goodly lists of subscribers are dropping in to cheer us. There is still room in our subscription books.

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### SPECIAL REPORT ON NORMAL SCHOOLS BY THE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.

We believe that the importance of the subject presented and the necessity of a concert of effort by the friends of education to secure legislative action, alike justify us in presenting this report entire in our present issue. The opportune time has come for securing the necessary legislation. All that is needed is to ask for it. Will the teachers of the State do this, and do it at once? Petitions will have weight, but letters addressed to the leading members of the General Assembly will do the work. Let each friend of normal training write to the members representing his district in the House and in the Senate. We can not possibly spare the time to attend to this matter personally. All must help.

The report was laid before the General Assembly by the Governor on the 30th of January—the copy being sent to the House of Representatives. It was laid upon the table and ordered to be printed—1500 extra copies being ordered for general distribution. The report was taken from the table on the 6th of February (as soon as printed), and referred to the Standing Committee on Common Schools with instructions to report by bill or otherwise. So far as we can learn, the feeling in the General Assembly is very favorable to the measure, and we are quite sure that Ohio need not longer stand below her sister States in this vital matter. Dear reader, what are you ready to do to help on the good work?

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### NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS.

A meeting of this body, which is composed of the school superintendents of the different States and leading cities, was held in Washington, D. C., on the 6th, 7th and 8th days of February, 1866. Rev. BIRDSEY G. NORTHRUP, State Agent of the Board of Education of Massachusetts, was President, and Hon. L. VAN BOKKELEN, State Superintendent of Public Schools of Maryland, secretary, and Capt. WM. MITCHELL, Superintendent of the Schools of Columbus, Ohio,

assistant secretary. Nine State superintendents and the superintendents of several cities in different parts of the country were present. The delegates from Ohio were E. E. WHITE, Commissioner of Common Schools; Col. D. F. DEWOLF, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo; M. F. COWDERY, Superintendent of Schools, Sandusky; and Capt. WM. MITCHELL, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus. Supt. HARDING, of Cincinnati, had made every preparation to attend, but was prevented by illness.

The Association was cordially welcomed by Mayor WALLACH. Senior SARMIENTO, Minister of the Argentine Republic to the United States, and the pioneer laborer in the field of general education in the South American Republics, was present, and, upon invitation of the President, made a brief address. He alluded, in broken English, to the fact that his country was the friend of the United States, and that the first city hereafter founded was to bear the name of the martyred Lincoln. He also stated that the Republics of South America were moving in the great work of establishing school systems similar to those of this country. Such systems were now in practical operation in Chili, Buenos Ayres, and St. Johns. He was present at the different sessions of the Association, and evinced the deepest interest in the proceedings.

Messrs. HOSFORD, of Michigan, DE WOLF, of Ohio, and HUBBARD, of Springfield, Mass., were appointed a committee on business.

A brief but valuable paper on School Statistics was read by Hon. C. R. COBURN, State Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania. He submitted, in conclusion, a series of resolutions, affirming that the interests of education demand a uniform basis of statistics in the different States; that without such a basis it is impossible to compile tables comparing educational results; and that for the purpose of securing such uniformity a National Bureau of Education should be established.

The resolutions were adopted, and a committee, consisting of Messrs. J. S. ADAMS, of Vermont, COBURN, of Pennsylvania, and WHITE, of Ohio, was appointed to prepare blank statistical forms with instructions, for the use of State school departments in reporting, in addition to their usual tables, a few items to serve as a basis for comparing the results attained in the different States.

A committee, consisting of Messrs. COWDERY of Ohio, HUBBARD, of Massachusetts, and GORTY, of Michigan, was appointed to make a report at the next meeting on School Statistics in Cities.

Hon. L. VAN BOKKELEN, of Maryland, read a paper on the "Practicability of Greater Uniformity in the School Systems of the Different States." He held that a difference in topography and in civil organization made complete uniformity impracticable. Among the agencies for securing greater uniformity, Normal Schools and a National Bureau of Education were named. In the free and full discussion of the paper which followed, attention was chiefly given to one topic—namely, the different classes of school officers necessary to administer successfully a State school system. Hon. Mr. COBURN, of Pennsylvania, stated that county supervision was the lever by means of which the school system of that State had been elevated and vitalized. He gave a full account of the practical working of the system. Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, State Superintendent of Illinois, said that county supervision was the "right arm" of their

school system. On motion of Mr. WHITE, of Ohio, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

*"Resolved, That three classes of school officers, namely, township or district boards of education, county superintendents, and a State superintendent, are essential to the highest success of a State system of common schools; and, further, that the successful management of graded schools in cities and towns requires efficient local supervision and direction."*

During the discussion the township system was strongly commended by several speakers. Mr. NORTHROP declared that the sub-district feature of the Massachusetts system was "evil and only evil" and was fast passing away. Mr. HOSFORD, of Michigan, and Mr. BATEMAN, of Illinois, bore similar testimony, while the superintendents of those States in which the township plan had been tried, declared it to be satisfactory and successful.

On Wednesday afternoon the members of the Association paid their respects in a body to President JOHNSON. He received them with great cordiality, and bade them a God-speed in their great work. He alluded to his own want of early education, and expressed the earnest hope that the advantages of school instruction would soon be extended to every child in the country. He regarded education as an interest of great national importance. The interview was a very pleasant one.

On Wednesday evening a paper was read by E. E. WHITE, of Ohio, on a National Bureau of Education. It opened with a brief discussion of the necessity of universal education as the foundation of universal sovereignty; and in view of the ignorance of the great body of the people that occupy one-half of the national territory, the inquiry was raised, "What ought the General Government to do to assist in making education both universal and efficient?" Three plans were specified:

1. The Government may establish and maintain throughout its territory a national system of education.
2. It may, by Congressional legislation, *enforce* the maintenance of a common school system upon every State.
3. It may, by conditional appropriations, and by a system of general inspection and encouragement through the agency of a National Bureau of Education, *induce* each State to maintain an efficient school system.

The first plan was deemed to be too wide a departure from the settled educational policy of the country to be commended. The Government should, however, undertake, for a time, the education of the freedmen. The second plan could only be justified on the ground of public necessity in a great national crisis. The belief was expressed that the third plan would prove efficient, and the manner in which *conditional* grants or appropriations would secure and foster school systems in the different States, was pointed out.

The influence which a National Bureau of Education would exert upon the schools of the country, was shown by a full analysis of the duties of such a department. It was urged that it should have no official control of the school authorities of the several States. Its function should be to quicken and inform rather than to direct and control.

The subject was further discussed by ex-Gov. BOUTWELL, of Massachusetts, and Hon. Mr. PATTERSON, of New Hampshire, members of the House of Rep-

representatives, and others, who took strong ground in favor of the proposed Bureau.

On motion of Mr. ADAMS, of Vermont, Mr. WHITE was requested to embody the substance of his paper in a memorial to Congress, and to send copies of the same to each State Superintendent for circulation for signatures. A committee of three, consisting of Messrs. WHITE, of Ohio, BATEMAN, of Illinois, and ADAMS, of Vermont, was appointed to memorialize Congress immediately.

On Thursday a paper was read by Hon. Mr. HARRISON, State Superintendent of Schools of New Jersey, upon the "Defects of our State Systems of Schools," and also another by Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN, of Illinois, on the "Leading Features of a Model State School System." Mr. BATEMAN's paper was lengthy and exhaustive. He specially urged the necessity of religious instruction and the study of the principles of civil government.

Mr. FISK, Superintendent of the Freedmen's Schools of North Carolina; Mr. PAYNE, Superintendent of the Freedmen's School in East Virginia, and Mr. CHASE, of Richmond, gave interesting and encouraging accounts of the progress of education in their several fields of labor.

A resolution was adopted calling the attention of Gen. HOWARD, Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, to the importance of establishing training schools for colored teachers.

On motion of Col. DE WOLF, of Ohio, all friends of education in the South were invited to attend the meetings of the National Educational Associations of the ensuing season.

Mr. COWDERY, of Ohio, chairman of the committee on resolutions, reported a series of excellent resolutions, which were unanimously adopted.

On motion of Mr. DOTY, of Michigan, a committee, consisting of Messrs. DOTY, DE WOLF, and SEARS, of New Jersey, was appointed to report at the next meeting a plan for organizing and superintending city public schools.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, BIRDSEY GRANT NORTHROP, of Massachusetts; Vice President, CHARLES R. COBURN, of Pennsylvania; Corresponding Secretary, G. H. HOSS, of Indiana; Recording Secretary, L. VAN BOKKELEN, of Maryland; Treasurer, DUANE DOTY, of Michigan.

It was voted that the next meeting of the Association be held at Indianapolis, Ind., commencing on the Monday preceding the meeting of the National Teachers' Association.

The meeting at Washington was a decided success, and will, it is believed, result in great good to the cause education. The discussions were practical, earnest, and free from buncombe.

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**NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.**—A memorial of the National Association of School Superintendents praying for the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, was presented in the House of Representatives on the 14th of February by Gen. GARFIELD, of Ohio, who, at the same time, introduced a bill to establish the Bureau in the Department of the Interior. The bill was read twice, referred to a Select Committee of Seven, and ordered, with the accompanying memorial, to be printed. The Committee consists of Messrs. GARFIELD, of Ohio, PATTERSON, of New Hampshire, BOUTWELL, of Massachusetts, DONNELLY, of Minnesota, MOULTON, of Illinois, GOODYEAR, of ———, and RANDALL, of Pennsylvania.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**EDUCATION AMONG ENGLISH DOMESTICS.**—The newspapers of England have been for some time discussing, with some feeling, the question of servant-girls, and even Mr. RUSKIN has turned away from Art to try to mend matters. The trouble arises from the fact that elementary education is enabling the poorer classes to ape somewhat the dress and manners of the aristocracy. This is regarded as too serious an innovation upon old customs to be tolerated.

One aristocratic lady writes to the *Telegraph* thus:

"For 2d. a week, girls of the same class receive an education far beyond their possible requirements. They read history and chapters on science, write a flowing hand, learn drawing and algebra; while the hour grudgingly devoted to needlework is spent in embroidery, or in knitting and crocheting fancy edgings for their under clothing. Not seldom does one among their number become a pupil-teacher, and finally a certificated mistress, learning French and music, and appearing to their envious eyes a lady fit for the highest society. Distinction of dress is too offensive to be any longer required, and the hat, bonnet and mantle of the Sunday scholar are in shape, if not in richness, identical with those of her lady teachers. The lady is no longer admired, but imitated; and henceforth the young woman's desire is to be taken for a lady, and to act like one as far as possible. High wages and cheap indulgences encourage this system of imitation. It is not only in dress that this is evident. Railway excursions and railway novels, penny papers and penny postage, all come within their reach and desire. They not only ape the appearance but the title of ladies. Their numerous letters are no longer addressed in a cramp hand to "Betsey Jones care of A. C., Esq., the Park, C—;" but "Miss Jones, the Park C—." I have even known great indignation against a postman who failed to deliver immediately a letter to a servant, addressed, "Miss H—, Aberystwith," during a temporary sojourn there."

It is to be hoped that more education will soon enable English servants to do better than imitate the bad manners of their employers. It is doubtless very unpleasant for English aristocracy to see themselves as others see them.

**ATHENS COUNTY.**—Our Cincinnati correspondent W., was misinformed as to the number of *Educational Monthlies* taken in Athens county, as the Superintendent of the Athens Union School takes a copy, as also every other teacher, and they have been taking the same for some months. Their time is about out, and they are getting ready to get up a new club.—*Athens Messenger*.

In reply to an inquiry, we recently stated that Prof. TAPPAN was the only teacher in Athens county then taking the *Monthly*. By referring to the subscription book for 1865, we find two other names—R. W. ERWIN and E. SHEFFIELD. But as their subscriptions expired in December last, it did not occur to us that our reply, though true, might convey a wrong impression. The teachers in the Athens Union School have always, we believe, evinced a professional spirit worthy of commendation. In 1864 we had eight subscribers at Athens, and in 1863 seven. We have usually had one or more subscribers at Amesville. When Prof. Young was one of the examiners, Athens county stood one of the first in the State in its support of this journal. But for several years, until recently, we have been unable to interest either of the examiners in the *Monthly*, and it has consequently had very few subscribers in the county. We shall be happy to bear better testimony in the future.

**TEN EXCUSES.**—The following extract from a letter just received from a friend, is too good for private enjoyment:

"I enclose a list of subscribers to the *Educational Monthly*, including the names of all our teachers except two. One of these has never taught before, and desires to wait until he finds whether or not he is 'going to be a teacher.' The other, a young lady, offered me such an array of reasons for not subscribing, that I can not help giving

you a summary of them:—She was going to read Motley; she was taking music lessons; she had a 'whole year' of the *Mass. Teacher* which she had never read; she had a 'whole year' of the *Ohio Educational Monthly* which she had not read; she was attending meeting; she had become so much interested in one of Barnard's Journals that she could not read anything else; she could borrow of one of the other teachers; she did n't know but that she should get some *Mass. Teachers*, and then exchange with some one; she never read more than a quarter of each number when she did take it; she was so busy that she did not have time to read anything.

"In view of all this, I did not press the matter."

**FISK FREE COLORED SCHOOL.**—We omitted last month a notice of the inauguration of a free graded school for colored children at Nashville, Tenn., which occurred on the 9th of January. Addresses were made by Gov. BROWNLOW, Chancellor LINDSLEY, and others. The buildings were formerly used as the U. S. M. Railroad Hospital, and will accommodate when properly furnished from 1,200 to 1,500 pupils. The rooms are well fitted up, and the appearance of the place is said to be very neat and attractive. It is the intention to make the school one of the best graded schools in the country. It is also to have a Normal Department for the training of teachers for colored schools. We take great pleasure in recording so important a movement as this, and we sincerely hope that it will be crowned with the highest success. We bid our friend OGDEN a God-speed in his noble work.

**SALARIES OF CLEVELAND TEACHERS.**—The number of teachers employed in the Cleveland schools at each grade of salary, is as follows:

GENTLEMEN.

Superintendent.....	\$2,100
Two Principals of High Schools.....	1,800
One Assistant in High School.....	1,500
One Assistant in High School.....	1,200
One Assistant in High School.....	1,000
One Teacher of Vocal Music.....	1,100
Seven Principals of District Schools.....	1,500
Three Principals of District Schools.....	1,400

LADIES.

Two Assistants in High Schools.....	800
One Assistant in High School.....	550
One Assistant in High School.....	500
Seventy Teachers in District Schools.....	550
Twenty-three Teachers in District Schools.....	500

Gentlemen receive \$100 and ladies \$50 less the first year of their teaching here than in after years.

PROF. T. E. SULIOT has been elected a member of the faculty of the Friends' College at Richmond, Ind., and will enter upon his duties on the 20th inst. His late associates at Antioch have forwarded to him the two volumes of Muller's Science of Language and the two of Dwight's Modern Philology as a token of their esteem and respect. The present was accompanied with a very kind and flattering letter. For four years Prof. SULIOT has been a regular and valuable contributor to the *Monthly*. His articles have been read with interest and profit, and have, moreover, been widely copied. His views on some educational subjects are in advance of those generally held, or at least acted upon, by our teachers, which fact adds to the practical value of his writings. Our readers will be glad to know that his removal from the State will not sever his connection with the *Monthly*.

HON. HENRY BARNARD, LL.D., was inducted into the office of President of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md., on the 22d of January. The ceremonies occurred in



the hall of the House of Delegates, and were of an interesting character. Subsequently the Legislature appropriated \$15,000 a year for six years to assist the trustees in re-establishing the college on a firm and broad basis. The college is really made a State institution. Maryland seems to have entered fully upon a new life.—Dr. BARNARD will continue to edit and publish the *American Journal of Education*, which has now reached its sixteenth volume.

HON. JOHN A. NORRIS entered upon his duties as State Commissioner of Common Schools on the 12th of February.

AUG. T. JENKINS, for two years past clerk in the office of Commissioner of Common Schools, has gone into mercantile business at Nebraska City, Nebraska Territory. He had become familiar with the duties of the office, and was a very valuable assistant. During the past year, he was the publisher of this journal. We wish him the abundant success in his new enterprise which his excellent business qualifications and sterling character merit.

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## BOOK NOTICES.

**TREATISE OF PLANE AND SOLID GEOMETRY.** By Prof. ELI T. TAPPAN. Cincinnati: Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle.

Whoever has taken the trouble to examine our elementary text-books on Geometry that for the last fifty years have succeeded each other, since the literal translation of the Greek Euclid by Prof. Robert Simpson, of Glasgow University, must have been struck by the gradual improvement.

1. The order of the theorems has been greatly improved by consolidating, or, at least, placing together propositions which, in the original work, were found in separate sections.

2. The assumption of a supposed axiom that vitiated the whole system, has been superseded by one which is truly self-evident.

3. In many instances, the mode of demonstration, or the language, has been simplified without any sacrifice of terseness or of logical accuracy.

4. The discreet introduction of algebraical forms has greatly facilitated the task of the learner.

Lastly, practical exercises to stimulate and develop the learner's inventive faculty, have been combined with the general plan.

Still, taking as a specimen Loomis' Geometry, one of the latest and best representatives of the works of this class, a reflecting and critical reader must be disagreeably impressed by the obvious absence of symmetry, or natural gradation, in the order of the theorems.

In the first book, for instance, the learner is introduced to some elementary properties of lines; from these he is taken to triangles; thence again to lines and back to triangles. A good deal of this kind of confusion might be avoided by slight changes in some of the proofs; still, a perfectly systematic order of subjects is impossible, without a complete remodeling of the demonstrations.

This Prof. Tappan has accomplished very successfully in the Geometry lately published by him as a part of Ray's Elementary Course of Mathematics.

The first section presents the properties of lines, oblique and parallel.

The second treats of arcs and angles.

The third of triangles.

The fourth of quadrilaterals and parallelograms.

The fifth of the circle, its rectification and quadrature.

Next we have the Geometry of Space, or Plane and Solid Geometry. The work concludes with the Sphere and Spherical Areas.

This beautifully systematic order is secured by a free use of that mode of proof which is technically called *Supraposition*: a portion of the diagram is supposed to revolve round some line as an axis, so as to form a semi-revolution; it is then shown, from the conditions of the hypothesis, that the two portions of the diagram thus applied to each other, must coincide, and are therefore equal.

To one accustomed to the more elaborate reasoning of former geometricians who used this mode of demonstration only when no other was available, the proof may, at first, appear flimsy and unsatisfactory. But, if I may judge by my own experience, a second perusal removes that impression, and leaves the reader free to enjoy without alloy the beauty of perfect order and symmetry in the concatenation of geometrical truths.

This work possesses also the merit of natural deductions or applications of some of the theorems with a rich and judicious collection of practical exercises. These, instead of being banished to the end of the volume where they are in danger of being overlooked, are distributed at short and regular intervals, so as to test, in the most telling way possible, the *real* progress of the learner, and keep his geometrical faculty and power of originating demonstrations of his own continually on the alert.

Mathematicians and teachers who do not wish to be confined to one plan or class of works, however meritorious, but are ambitious to see, as it were, the *latest fashions* in the mode of *dressing* geometrical truths in France and Germany, will find Prof. Tappan's book a very satisfactory exponent of the new geometrical school. T. E. S.

ILLUSTRATED SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, and the Adjacent Parts of America. By G. P. QUACKENBOS, A.M., Author of "First Lessons in Composition," "Advanced Course of Composition and Rhetoric," etc. New York: D. Appleton, & Co. 1865. Pp. 521.

This work has been lying upon our table for several weeks, receiving such attention from time to time as we could bestow. With its general plan, we are well pleased. The accounts of particular settlements, colonies, etc., are kept distinct, and yet the order of events throughout the whole is as far as possible preserved. The style is simple and interesting, and the author has woven into his story a sufficient amount of detail, biography, etc., to make it attractive. A boy at our elbow only nine years of age, is reading the work in course with lively interest. The account is brought down to July, 1865, and includes the marvelous story of the rise, progress, and overthrow of the Great Rebellion. We notice some omissions here that seem a little strange; but we are not disposed to criticise the performance of a task so difficult as the writing of a summary of the events of the last five years. The work contains the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States—both of which should be studied by every American youth.

BOOKS RECEIVED.—The following new school books have been received, and will be noticed next month:

English Grammar by Miss CLARA A. HAAS, published by W. S. Haven, Pittsburgh; Spencerian Key to Practical Penmanship, Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co., publishers, New York; Willson's Intermediate Third Reader, Harper & Brothers, publishers, New York; and Monteith's Physical and Intermediate Geography, A. S. Barnes & Co., publishers, New York.

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## TALKS AFTER WORKING HOURS.—V.

BY AN EX-MECHANIC.

A frightful accident occurred in our shop. The boiler of the steam-engine burst, through the carelessness of our engineer—a worthless, dissipated fellow, whose discharge I had often urged from considerations of safety as well as true economy. One of our best workmen was killed instantly, and seven badly injured. Among the latter was Jones, whose lathe was nearest the engine, and whose escape from instant death was almost miraculous. As it was, he lay in a comatose state several days, and for weeks was as helpless as a child. Carson and myself watched with him alternate nights until he was considered out of danger, and, during his convalescence, spent much of our leisure in relieving the tedium and monotony of the sick-room, by reading aloud and cheerful conversation.

The conduct of Clarence, during this trying period, surprised us all. For the first time, the great fact of life and its responsibilities was brought home to his consciousness, and he learned that there was actual enjoyment in self-denial. His mother, a quiet, gentle being, was ill able to bear the burden of care and anxiety imposed upon her—not the least of which was the conviction that she had not strength of will sufficient to manage him,

should he persist in following the lead of his wayward, capricious whims and fancies. Still, she leaned instinctively upon him as the one nearest her—one who should be her stay—and he supported her manfully: performed all those household duties which boys abominate, with promptitude and alacrity, and when her spirits were depressed, cheered her with kind words, and more than all else, as she afterward told us, with oft-repeated promises of reformation. We expected this change in him to be temporary only—a swing of the pendulum to the opposite extreme, quite common with thoughtless, volatile dispositions. When he had acted the “good boy” for six weeks or more, with only two or three relapses, and those under strong temptation, we began to think there was a better side to his nature than we had given him credit for, and to regret that the return of his father to his old haunts and associations, the removal of the restraints which filial love and self-respect were imposing upon him, would soon restore the old condition of things.

Jones rarely alluded to him in our evening talks, but the grave smile, the half-anxious, half-proud look with which he greeted him whenever he came into the room, showed there was an under-current in his thoughts and feelings whose flow he could not wholly conceal. We remarked this often—Carson and I—and came to the conclusion that the dark shadow which had fallen upon him was providential—“God’s opportunity.” His sense of parental duty was evidently quickened—and we began to hope he would emerge into the sunlight a wiser and a better man.

We were not mistaken in this. One evening, when the hour’s reading was finished, he requested us to remain longer than usual, saying he felt very wakeful, and had, besides, some special matters to talk about. After we had bolstered him up comfortably in his bed, as we always did when we conversed, he told us with much feeling, that since he became conscious, after the accident, his wife and child had not been out of his thoughts one moment. Although until quite lately he had not expected to live, all hopes and fears for eternity had been banished from his mind by the anxiety he felt for them. “Now,” said he, “the doctor tells me I shall recover. I know I am growing stronger every day. In a few months I shall take my old position in the shop. For myself and wife I have no more anxiety—but there is a

problem which I must solve, and that is, 'What can I do with Clarence?'"

*Myself*.—I have supposed that to be already solved. He is apprenticed to learn your own trade. He is released only temporarily from his duties to attend upon you.

*Jones*.—Clarence's indentures are canceled. Mr. Ransom came here yesterday, and we had a long talk together. You know I have been very improvident. This little home is all I possess; one week's wages all the money I had when stricken down. A few days since I asked the doctor for his bill, and wished him to dispense with any further visits, on the score of economy. With a quiet smile, he told me he was already paid, and had positive orders to attend me until I was completely well. My wife, who was present, said this must be Ransom's doing, for he had insisted on paying her my regular wages every pay-day since the accident, and had frequently told her not to be anxious about the future. I know I have been a faithful workman, but I have been paid for it. Those with whom I squandered my earnings forgot me in my extremity: he who owed me nothing became my benefactor. He denies being influenced by charitable motives, however,—says the accident was partly owing to his own remissness, for he knew the engineer to be a worthless fellow—and declares that every thing shall be done that money can do to make us whole, if it takes all he is worth.

*Carson*.—Hurrah for Ransom! I knew he was a good fellow, but never dreamed of his doing that. Let's get up a testimonial for him, we sound ones.

*M*.—That's the popular way of rewarding a good action, but I question its propriety. A good deed brings its own reward. It is true that our actions are public property, but it is sometimes as improper to praise or reward them openly as to sneeringly criticise the motives which prompted them. We will give him a testimonial, but let it be an earnest of our respect for him as a man, without reference to any thing he has done for us or our unfortunate friends. What do you propose to do with Clarence, Mr. Jones?

*J*.—I hardly know, myself,—at least the whole subject of his future is not clear to me. With all his fun and mischief he is shrewd and observing, and the last few weeks have shown that he

is not wanting in kindness of heart. He has found out by some means, that there is a difference between what you call a *hand* workman and a *master* workman. He does not know exactly in what that difference consists, but thinks education has something to do in creating it, and desires to go to school a year or so longer. What had I better do?

Carson winked at me, and stated briefly the views I presented in my first three "Talks"—frankly confessing his belief that they were correct. When he had finished, Jones said: "Well, that seems reasonable, though I never looked at it in that light before. It will take much longer than either he or I supposed to fit one to become a master mechanic. He knows what *you* are, and says he will be governed by your advice. He is *in for it* now, and must go through. Our High School, the people say, is a good one, and the College up town will be in full blast by the time he is ready to enter it. I have always considered a collegiate education of no practical value, and he has often heard me say so. I think we shall have some trouble in satisfying him that my old foggy notions are incorrect.

*M.*—The acquisition of knowledge and the discipline of the mind are pleasurable tasks when undertaken in earnest. With boys generally the creation of a love for learning is the most difficult part of a teacher's work. We all act from some motive. Clarence has now a dim, confused notion of the value of an education. He has no idea whatever of either its character or extent. During the year you have thought sufficient for its acquisition, he may, if surrounding circumstances are favorable, form a taste as well as a love for study. He can do but little more. Old, vicious habits must be eradicated, and better ones formed. If he gets fairly under way in a year, he will do well.

*J.*—You seem to think I need reformation as well as he, from the peculiar emphasis you give "surrounding circumstances." Now don't count much on me. My habits are fixed. At my age they can not be materially changed. The expense of his education will, of course, force me to be more economical, but unless I have some recreation, and joke and laugh as usual, I shall die of dyspepsia or something worse.

*M.*—Do not think for one moment that your light-heartedness is a fault. You have no occasion for reform in that particular.

You have asked my advice, and I will be frank with you. You have heretofore turned Clarence loose into the world, to do pretty much as he pleased, instead of hedging him round with incentives to excellence, and furnishing him with means for improvement. Sons usually follow the example of their fathers. When the crab told his son to "walk straight forward," he received for reply that it would be done as soon as he set the example. You must do something more than merely earn and save money to pay tuition and board bills, if you sincerely desire to develop *all* the elements of manhood there are in Clarence. He is doing nobly now—but your anxiety for him betrays a well-founded fear that he will fall back into his old habits when the routine of daily life shall again run in its accustomed grooves. *That* depends upon yourself. If you are as thoughtless and thriftless as heretofore—if you show no desire for the education of your own head and heart—how can you expect him to reform his ways. You must practice self-denial yourself, make home cheerful and pleasant by all the means and appliances you can command—and more than all, you must watch over him and his associations as vigilantly as you would guard a priceless treasure—must lead him in right paths by the power of love and the example of an earnest life, when possible—when these fail his will must be made to bend before your own: persuasion must give place to coercion. If you will do this, Clarence may become the pride of your household, the stay of your old age. His name may be written among the great and good ones of earth—if you do not, you yourself must answer for the consequences at the Great Day.

*J.*—A "Washingtonian" of twelve years standing knows how hard it is to keep a promise when appetite or pleasure tempts one to break it. I have conquered King Alcohol, and think I can conquer King Billiards and King Euchre. At any rate, I will make the attempt. Visit me often and hold up my hands when I am weary or despondent. Good night. Don't forget me when you get up that testimonial for Ransom.

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DISCRETION is the most universal art, and has more professors than students.

## THE TEACHER AND HIS DUTIES.

BY P. K.

In order that the highest expectation of our noble free school system may be fully realized, the teacher must act his part manfully and effectively. He it is that must be held responsible for the intelligence and refinement of society, when the youth now attending school shall have grown into manhood. Would that we could all fully appreciate this fact, arouse ourselves to a due sense of our responsibility, and thoroughly prepare ourselves for the great work devolved upon us.

It is a very narrow view indeed, to suppose that the sphere of a teacher is simply to teach children the elements of an English education. It is rather the preparing of men to take possession of the world; for in a few years the world will be governed by the children of to-day. They will enter upon the duties of life with the impressions so indelibly fixed on their youthful minds by the teacher. This idea, we think, demands the attention of every one connected with the education of youth; and it should call into the profession the highest ability and energy that the country affords. But this will never be the case until the teacher is better remunerated for his services than at present. It requires as much talent to be a good and efficient teacher as to be a lawyer or a physician; and we see no reason why the one should not be as well paid as the other. Until this is done, incompetent persons will use the teacher's calling as a stepping stone to something more lucrative. A change for the better is beginning to dawn upon us; and with it there comes a corresponding progress in methods of teaching. The old method of cramming is rapidly being superseded by the more effective method of mental culture.

Education consists not so much in receiving truths as in the exercise of the faculties in the search after them. The mind, like the muscles of the body, is developed only by exercise. "Fill the mind with truth," is the motto of some, but "Train the mind to discover truth," should be the motto of all. Malebranche says, "If I held truth captive in my hand, I should open my hand and let it fly, in order that I might again pursue and capture it." It



was not the simple knowledge of facts that made a Newton, a Bacon, or a Franklin; but rather the development of mind by deep, concentrated thinking. Thought has ever been the great revolutionizer; and all great achievements in the future must be the direct result of it. Great attention, therefore, should be paid to the proper development not of memory alone, but of every faculty. Memory may fail, but a scholar once taught to reason well need fear but little about his future progress,—it will be his key to every difficulty and his armor against every species of error.

In order to draw out the reasoning powers more fully, no better method can be adopted, perhaps, than the one of sometimes placing truth before the mind in a negative form. "Doubt," says Hamilton, "is the first cause of philosophy;" and was it not from doubting the truth of the Platonic philosophy that Galileo was first led to discover those great principles which have caused his name to be revered by every true lover of science? Wherever we have seen great and noble overthrows of error, it has been by raising a doubt as the first stepping stone to reason. Far greater attention, therefore, should be paid to the reasoning employed in a recitation than to the amount recited. We should never content ourselves with a progress which is measured by the number of pages gone over. We frequently fail by trying to do too much, rather than by doing a little well. Our object is not to raise powerful superstructures, but rather to lay the foundations for them.

It is not simply mental development, but also moral and physical that demands the particular attention of the teacher. To educate the mind and not the heart, is like applying full sail to a vessel without ballast. The moral powers must take the pre-eminence in directing the physical and intellectual energies, or our education may become worse than useless. We do not advocate the introducing of the dogmas of any particular religious sect, but the engrafting upon the heart of the broad principles of love to God and duty to one's neighbor. The teacher should be ready to seize every favorable circumstance for enforcing a just appreciation of every thing of good report, and a true abhorrence of every form of evil.

But perhaps in no part of our duties are we so liable to err as

in school discipline. Good government is indispensably necessary to the well-working of a school, and yet respecting the best mode of attaining good government, there is a great diversity of opinion among teachers. Theorists have often laid down moral suasion as an infallible rule, and they sometimes make their theory look plausible enough. There are, however, few practical teachers who have ever been able to carry it out successfully in their schools. A great many of those who make the attempt, frequently introduce other kinds of punishment, ten times more objectionable than the using of the rod. Among them is the very pernicious practice of making a scholar an object of contempt or ridicule. Such a practice can have but one tendency, viz., to break the spirit and crush out the last vestige of manly feeling in the child—a result the very opposite to that which should be aimed at by every instructor of youth.

In our practice of teaching, we have never found a precept more effective than the one laid down by Solomon, who says: "Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him;" and again, "He that spareth the rod hateth his son." And no truer rule can be laid down than this, that a teacher should punish as a judicious parent would under similar circumstances.

Before moral suasion can be successfully carried out in school, it must first be introduced into the nursery. Then the teacher would have nothing to do but the simple cultivation of the principles first implanted by the parent. But where a child is sent to school so self-willed as to be perfectly beyond the influence of moral suasion, the teacher must apply a remedy according to the disease. But while we insist that severe measures are, in some cases, essentially necessary, yet to say that the same degree of punishment should be meted out for the same offense whenever or by whom committed, would be as purely absurd as to say that the physican should administer, without discrimination, the same remedies in all like diseases. The degree of punishment must be modified by other considerations than simply by the offense committed. In fact, corporal punishment should be used only when every other means has failed. The child should be made to feel, if possible, that his punishment is inflicted from necessity, and not from momentary excitement or passion; or, in other words,

we should ever appeal to a child's reason, even in acts of punishment. The teacher should ever exhibit kindness with determination, self-control with firmness. His laws should be few, but immutable; or, as the poet has happily expressed it,

"Be obeyed when thou commandest, but command not often;  
Let thy courage be the gentleness of love, not the stern front of tyranny."

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## PRACTICAL THOUGHTS FOR THE TEACHER.

BY REV. SAMUEL FINDLEY.\*

### No. II.

"When we work upon materials immortal and imperishable, they will bear the impress which we place upon them through endless ages to come." DANIEL WEBSTER.

"On, Teacher, on;  
The joy be thine,  
Rightly to instruct from day to day,  
To lead one mind in wisdom's way—  
The bliss will all thy care repay;  
On, Teacher, on."

ANON.

What would you think, fellow-teacher, of a blacksmith who, in shoeing your favorite horse, would so carelessly drive the nails, or even one nail, as to wound and to fester his foot? While you would sympathize with the suffering animal, would not merited maledictions for the special benefit of the blundering blacksmith, find eloquent expression in the outbreathing of your justly aroused passion? Would you be disposed to commit such an important trust to him again? Am I, then, unreasonable, when I refuse to entrust the education of my son to one who has no proper conception of the nature and importance of his work as a teacher of youth? The man who aspires to such a high vocation, is bound by the claims of religion and humanity to acquaint himself as thoroughly as possible with the nature of that ever-living, mysterious, impressible essence, upon which he operates, and to know the laws by which its powers are controlled, and how to impart to

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mind solidity and worth and educe its noblest attributes. This subject I wish to elaborate briefly in this paper.

No sadder paragraph can be found in the biography of any school teacher, than that which tells of his *blind* pursuit of the *business* of teaching—having an eye only on the “recompense of reward,” which he esteems as the official pecuniary recognition of the merit of his long, self-imposed confinement in the school-room. Some regard the mere manual labor of hearing classes recite, and making out their quarterly reports, as the sum total of the duties required of the teacher, and having fulfilled all the requisitions of the law, they receive their promised compensation, and with great self-complacency retire from the toils of the profession. From such teachers, I would have our age and country forever delivered. A truer, higher, nobler conception of the teacher’s work, I would have impressed upon the minds of my fellow-teachers. To wake up mind to intellectual life and action—to train this immaterial essence to *think*—this is the great work of the teacher.

In giving expression to this sentiment, I do not ignore the long established doctrine that the whole man ought to be developed symmetrically,—in his physical, intellectual, and moral being,—because the thorough development of the intellect embraces all the rest. The healthy growth of a strong and vigorous mind requires a healthy and vigorous body and correct moral training. The art of thinking is the art of arts, and to teach this art is the teacher’s work. The soul is the thinking essence in man. It lives to *think* and *thinks* to live. He, then, that develops soul-life must develop thought, for thought is soul-life. Mind *feeds* on thought as its appropriate aliment, and as its powers expand, it *produces* thought as its characteristic phenomenon, and acquires strength in the effort.

The teacher should, therefore, so conduct his recitations as to strengthen the varied powers of the intellect, and secure, on the part of the pupil, concentrated mental action on every subject within the range of his investigation. To accomplish this, there must be on the part of the teacher an accurate acquaintance with the faculties of the mind, their nature and laws of development, otherwise he will reap a decided failure as the fruit of all his toils. When I speak of the *thinking power* of the mind, I mean simply

that state of the mind in which all its energy is concentrated upon the subject of thought, holding it firmly in its grasp until its varied relations to other subjects of thought and its true analysis are accurately discovered. He, then, is the most successful thinker who can, with the greatest facility, induce this mental state, and bring to his service at any time all his intellectual energies and all his store of knowledge.

The product of the thinking power is *thought*. When I speak, therefore, of stirring up, or waking up thought, I employ a figure of speech in which the *effect* is used for the *cause*—the *result* of mental action for the *action itself*. And as knowledge is only the material necessary to the production of thought, the communication of knowledge is but a subordinate part of the business of the educator. This is a fundamental truth, and must never be forgotten by the teacher. It is possible for a man to possess much knowledge and but little thought. The mere collection of books does not make the owner a reader; neither will the accumulation of materials for thought necessarily make a man a thinker. Knowledge we receive from others; thought is the result of our own mental action. The man who has acquired knowledge simply, is the passive recipient of the thoughts of others—not the active originator of thought. Of such a one we may truthfully say, he is well informed but a poor scholar. He is an intellectual miser; he has hoarded up great stores of knowledge, but he makes no practical use of it. He is indebted to the genius of the learned world for all his intellectual wealth, but he lays mankind under no obligation to himself for a single original thought.

The teacher who regards the communication of facts in history, principles in science, rules or formulæ in mathematics, as the great business of education, has much mistaken the true object of his mission. This he must do, that the mind of the pupil may have material for thought; but he must do more—mental action must be induced, and the pupil taught to investigate for himself, to reflect, to think. This done, his work is accomplished.

I think I have made myself understood, and that the intelligent reader will perceive that the work here assigned the teacher is a great one, and must be undertaken under a deep sense of the fearful responsibility of those who give a false direction to the powers of the mind when in the process of development.

"Then, teacher, reflect that a trifling word,  
Although to thee it may seem unheard,  
May bear on its bosom that priceless gem,  
More rich than a starry diadem,  
The human soul—Oh! a fearful trust  
Is reposed in thee, thou worm of dust."

The first means by which the teacher will most successfully accomplish the work assigned him, is *by exciting in the mind of the pupil a desire for knowledge*. Man's nature is emotional. His desires stimulate him to action, and man becomes a warrior, politician, philosopher, statesman or philanthropist, to gratify his ruling desire. Do we wish to induce a youth to become a sailor? We appeal to his love for the marvelous—we excite within him a fondness for a sea-faring life—we awake desires that can only be gratified amid the perils of the ocean, and the work is done. The genius of the immortal West was kindled into a flame by his kind mother's kiss of approbation, when he exhibited to her his first effort at painting. It was his insatiable desire for knowledge that raised Franklin above his fellow printers, and placed him in the society of statesmen and philosophers. Swammerdam, the great entomologist, was incited to the examination of natural objects by being employed in early life in arranging and keeping in order the contents of his father's museum. This desire for knowledge when aroused in the minds of the young, has often become enthusiastic, and overcome every obstacle that stood in the way of its gratification. Edmund Stone was the son of the gardener of the Duke of Argyle, and without the aid of a teacher, could read Newton's Principia at the age of eighteen. In the account he then gave to the Duke of his attainments, he said: "Ten years ago a servant taught me to read;—the masons were then at work upon your house. I approached them one day, and observed that the architect used a rule and compasses, and that he made calculations. I inquired what might be the meaning and the use of these things; and I was informed there was a science called arithmetic. I purchased a book of arithmetic, and I learned it. I was told there was another science called geometry: I bought the necessary books, and I learned geometry. Finding that there were good books of these two sciences in Latin, I bought a dictionary and learned Latin. I also bought a French dictionary,

and learned French. This, my lord, is what I have done; it seems to me that we may learn everything when we know the twenty four letters of the alphabet." And I may add so we may, provided we are moved to study and seek for knowledge for the love we have for it, as was Edmund Stone.

The remarkable acquisitions of the learned blacksmith, Elihu Burritt, were the result of that thirst for knowledge which despairs not, but accomplishes all it undertakes. The life of Samuel Drew, a poor shoemaker in Cornwall, England, tells us that at twenty-four years of age he could do little more than decypher the alphabet, and that, at the same time, he was so poor that he had frequently to "tighten his apron strings" in lieu of his dinner. And yet this man, moved by a burning desire for knowledge, became the most profound metaphysician of his time, and wrote upon the resurrection of the body and immortality of the soul, works which have never been surpassed in depth of thought by the most gifted scholars. Pinching poverty can not stay the onward progress of the man who is determined to be a scholar. No difficulties are too great to be overcome by the aspirant after knowledge. Dr. Adam, the eminent rector of the High School of Edinburgh, when at college ate a penny roll for his dinner. Dr. Kitto in his fifteenth year became an inmate of the Plymouth work-house. In his journal, he writes: "I have been a year in the work-house. I have made 78 pair of list shoes, and mended many,—premium, one penny per week." This penny was expended on mental food. But over all his difficulties he triumphed, and his praise is in all the churches and throughout the world.

Kindle such a desire for knowledge in the soul of your pupil, and it will consume the last remains of ignorance from the mind. Inspire him with this mental enthusiasm, and difficulties in the attainment of knowledge may rise high as the Alps before him, but, Napoleon-like, he will reach the plains beyond. And though he has but little capital to meet the expenses of his campaign of discovery and conquest, encouraged, like the youthful Alexander, by his hopes, his journey through the dominions of literature and science will be distinguished by constant victories and triumphs, until he shall sit upon the throne of universal knowledge.

## PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION.

[ The following is an extract from a paper read by Dr. THOMAS HILL, President of Harvard College, before the American Social Science Association, recently convened at Boston, Mass.: ]

And by no means the least difficult part of the problems of social science belongs to the division of education. Education in the narrower sense in which it is usually spoken of, belongs to the mind of man; it is the training of the power of observation, memory, imagination, reason, sentiment, affections and will, and as these are not directly manifested in space and time, to which alone measurement directly applies, it is difficult to devise any modes of measuring, however roughly, the effects of different systems of education. Then in this department, as in all the higher departments, the difficulty arising from the complication of causes affecting one effect, and the multiplicity of observations requisite on this account is very embarrassing.

This may be illustrated in a single instance upon which I was at work last week. I took the scholars entering the college from different schools, public and private, and obtained average numerical results concerning the rank which they took on entering college, and the rank which they maintained to the end of their course. The results were very striking, the students from one school entering better and perhaps falling, from another entering not so well and steadily rising.

But what do the results prove? At first sight it might be held to show the effects of the peculiar training given in each school, and to give us the means of deciding which system of school training fits a boy best for college. But before we allow the judgment to draw this conclusion, we must inquire where each school is situated, and what other influences are at work there. Perhaps one is in the country and draws to it farmers' sons; another in the country, but supported by the wealthier inhabitants of the city; a third is in the city itself, and a public school; perhaps to one pecuniary advantages draw young men of maturer years, struggling to maintain themselves, and to another the unwilling boys are sent. And even supposing that these figures did prove which system in school best prepared the young man to graduate honorably, the higher question comes whether the system that prepares best for college prepares best for life,—and whether the college itself is a good instrument of education.

I will illustrate by one more example. Horace Mann caused the operatives in the Waltham factories who worked by the piece, and whose wages were therefore a test of their skill, to be asked how many months of instruction they had received in the common schools, and on a numerical comparison it was found that the wages earned by piece work were in general proportioned to the number of months of schooling received. This was a capital observation, dictated by a true scientific spirit in the first secretary of our Board of Education. Contrast it with an attempt which I once saw on the part of a superintendent of education to elicit similar information by sending a circular to the superintendents of manufacturing establishments, asking them whether *intelligent* laborers received more wages than *ignorant* ones; as though the answers to



such a vague and pointless question could be of any value to science. And yet this worthless question suggests a just caution in the use of Horace Mann's striking result. The wages of the girls at Waltham were in general proportioned to the amount of schooling received. But before we decide that the schooling is the cause of the wages, we must inquire whether they were not both effects of another cause, namely, the superior native intelligence of the girls. A girl of good capacity would like schooling and seek it,—a more stupid girl avoid it; and this difference of capacity in the two might make the main difference in them afterward as workers in the mill.

With these remarks on the caution necessary in using statistics in these higher questions of social science, with this warning that facts and figures can readily mislead, and with this caveat against supposing that the application of utilitarian tests as criteria in judging of theory, implies that I consider practice worth more than theory, the senses more than the intellect, the body more than the soul, I will mention a few of the problems in education whose solution is most desirable, and in which by statistical methods we might attempt their scientific verification.

There are at least four distinct authorities to whom the superintendence and direction of education may be intrusted,—and one of the fundamental inquiries is, To what extent and in what method should each of these four authorities charge itself with the duty and claim the right of fulfilling it? I refer, of course, to the State, to the church, to voluntary associations, and to the family. Public schools, parochial schools and Sunday schools, private schools and academies, family instruction,—what are the rights and duties of each, and the consequent advantages and disadvantages of allowing each to have its own place or to supplant the place of the other, and are there any direct numerical results by which we can verify our philosophical conclusions upon these points?

These inquiries are more interesting and complicated to us in this country, because of the freedom of division in the church, and because of our sub-division of the powers of the State. The State is divided with us into the main divisions of the nation, the State in the local sense, or as we say in Massachusetts, the commonwealth, and the town or township; and it is a question of great importance whether the nation has not the right and the duty to nationalize a system of education. It is also a matter of vital importance that as great freedom as possible be left with the towns. In all departments of our social life one law prevails, and in observing the history of education in our country, I am deeply impressed with the truth of the law that the most perfect development of individuality, and the greatest multiplication and strengthening of local centres of attraction, bind the whole community most firmly together as one, and lead to the highest and best results,—that there is, therefore, a natural and healthful tendency in our school system, as it attains perfection, to have some common national bond—some common head.

But in addition to this question of a public system, and whether that system can and should be made national in any sense, comes the question of religion,—whether public education should ignore religion,—whether churches should be allowed to supplant public schools by parochial schools,—and whether Sunday schools should be allowed to supplant family instruction.

A very different set of problems will be found for the consideration of the superintending authorities, concerning the proper selection and arrangement of studies.

A child needs a gymnastic training for the body, an intellectual discipline for the mind, a moral and æsthetic culture for the sentiments of affection, and a religious training for the will. No one of these four can be neglected, without serious injury to the child. But in what proportion and to what extent should the State, the church, and the family, undertake these four branches of education?

And to what extent is any general system advisable or possible? The pupils vary greatly in their powers and in their proposed courses of life. In the first place, there is the sharp division of the sexes. Men and women differ widely in physical and physiological functions, and in the work of life growing therefrom, and their powers of mind and heart and will are adapted to their organization, their instincts and their destined work with infinite skill. Of course, they require different education, and the attempt to give them the same culture must lead to disastrous results.

Then among pupils of the same sex there is a diversity of gifts: one is born a poet, another a machinist, a third a gymnast, and no process of education can eradicate the native taste or native aversion,—can give the power which is wanting, or destroy that which was inborn.

To what extent among such diverse beings can any system be applicable? And as far as system is applicable, what system shall it be, that is in regard to generality? Shall all pupils be taught the same things, or shall we divide them into as many classes as practicable, and give each a special education?

The difficulty of this question will become apparent when we reflect that there are confessedly two extremes, and that there are no criteria established by which we can decide how far from one extreme or the other the just medium lies.

One extreme would be to exact of every pupil precisely the same kind and same amount of attainment, and to keep every pupil at this required work exclusively until of adult years. Such absurdity could never be seriously proposed.

The other extreme would be to suffer the child from his very earliest years to select his own bias of labor, and never to require from him either a kind or an amount of labor which would be distasteful to him. This also is too absurd for serious defence.

But between these two extremes lie all the schemes and plans and all the practical operations of instructors,—some contending that the just medium lies nearer one, and others that it lies nearer the other extreme. How shall we decide which is right?

In favor of an extended general course, it is argued that this not only increases the sum total of the pupil's efficiency and happiness, but that it is actually a better preparation than any other for special work. The better the general state of health and vigor, other things being equal, the greater is the efficiency which can be given to one member, and the greater the skill that can be acquired in one operation, so that the best preparation for special pursuits is

a general education. It was in defence of this doctrine that Horace Mann brought forward the striking fact to which I have referred, that the wages earned by piecework in a cotton mill, were in proportion to the time previously spent by the operative in studying arithmetic and geography and grammar. Similar statistics to show the advantages of general education in special pursuits might doubtless be gathered in other departments of labor. It might be worth while, for example, to compare the income lists with the catalogues of schools and colleges, and see what ratio may exist between income and education. A recent writer has shown how favorable mental culture is to longevity, by actual statistics. The relation of culture in one department to general life and activity of thought in other departments could be shown from the depopulation of observatories and laboratories during the revolutions of 1848, and from the rolls of honor of our colleges during the late war in our country, especially if, as has been stated, the percentage of graduates who entered the service, prove to have been in proportion to the height of the standard of scholarship in the institution.

But I pass to the suggestion of another class of questions, the answers to which may possibly be susceptible of scientific and numerical verification.

In both special and general education, we shall be forced to make a selection of pursuits, as even the narrowest special field of labor is far wider in its range of legitimately connected and preparatory studies than the reach of the most gifted human genius.

On what principles should this selection be guided, and in what order should the selected topics be brought before the pupil, and in what mode presented to him? These are to me, I confess, the most intensely interesting problems of the whole, and I have labored upon them myself with more zeal than upon the others. I think that we might easily devise a series of inquiries which could give us a numerical verification of our theories concerning these points.

For example, when a choice of text-books used in preparing for admission to college is allowed, the relative proficiency after entrance of those who were prepared on one or the other book might be noted. I have myself compared the effects of rival books on three different subjects, with satisfactory results.

Even in one and the same school numerical results of this kind might be obtained. Thus I have tested two modes of teaching the spelling of the English language by subjecting classes taught in the two ways to a written examination on the same lists of words promiscuously chosen, and noting the difference in the percentage of errors.

Even popular testimony may be received cautiously as an element of judgment. The inhabitants of the city of Oswego will soon be able to say definitely whether any thing is gained or any thing lost by the system of object teaching there used. In Waltham, after I had been for several years substituting geometry for a part of arithmetic, and Chase's briefer and more elegant for Greenleaf's prolix and clumsy arithmetic, I was not displeased to have the storekeepers of that town tell me that the boys who graduated at our High School knew more than twice as much of arithmetic and of keeping accounts as they formerly did, although they spent less than half the time upon it, and in the other half learned a great deal else that was equally valuable.

These questions concerning the true selection and true order of studies in public education, are manifestly of public interest. Not less really so are the same questions as applied to special education for the various pursuits of life. A man of high social position once expressed to me his contempt of the questions of education in the primary school. Of what consequence is it, said he, what babies are doing?

Ah! it was a hasty, inconsiderate question. The interests of the whole race are bound together in one, and it as *really* concerns me to have a method discovered by which shoemakers' apprentices at Lynn shall be most rapidly converted into skillful workmen as it does to have the course of studies and instruction at the university made the best possible, as *really* though not as *nearly*. The less time occupied in learning, (provided the end of the teaching is attained, and the pupil grows to his full stature in knowledge and wisdom,) the more time left for practising, for doing the work of life, for serving men, and it is in the mutual serving of each other that our highest social life and highest social happiness consist.

### VALUE OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF A HIGH CHARACTER.

[In an able annual review of the progress, condition and wants of the town of Ravenna, the *Portage County Democrat* thus alludes to the Union School: ]

The attention a community pays to its educational concerns, may well be taken as the standard of its intelligence and purity. Whatever Ravenna may lack in other respects, its schools are its best letter of credit and its pride. This is a feature of moral, intellectual, and material wealth, which all have come to honor and respect.

The Union school system, now in operation among us, was adopted here in the year 1858. From that time to the close of 1859, the schools held their sessions in separate buildings, in different quarters of the town. In December, 1859, the present elegant and valuable school edifice was completed, and the schools took their places in its respective apartments, and then really commenced the mission of the Ravenna Union School,—a mission, too, that but few realized or understood, and they its warmest friends and most ardent supporters. But the years have rolled on: its position and influence have been made secure; and from a condition of impracticable crudity, it has grown to be a perfectly systematized, a thoroughly disciplined and valuable institution. This has not been accomplished without a struggle. But when a step has been taken, it has been so well and practically taken, that the backward tide can never overtake it, so long as the policy of its management keeps in view the high standard it has attained.

The institution, of itself, has attracted to Ravenna, during the past five years, the most valuable additions that have been made to its population. Its influence is acknowledged by every good parent and citizen, and its benefits are highly valued, yet none too highly. If there is any seeming indifference or neglect on the part of any who are enjoying the advantages of the school, it undoubtedly is to be attributed to the excellence of the institution, and may be taken as

complimentary to it; but still it would be preferable to have all who have children to send to school to take a more marked personal interest in it—visit it often, form the acquaintance of those to whose tuition they commit their children, and by personal knowledge and interest add to their own and the general welfare. It is hardly possible for any one, not fully experienced therein, to realize the trials, the cares, the vexations, and the labors of the good teacher. Why not give them a glimpse of sunshine, a word of cheer and interest and encouragement, instead of letting term after term pass, without the slightest attention to these friendly offices,—the teachers of our children remaining utter strangers to us. Could this but be the course of all directly interested in the school, its sphere of usefulness would be immeasurably enhanced.

The last annual enumeration found about six hundred and fifty liable to enumeration for school purposes. The last annual report of the Board of Education stated the number of pupils enrolled at five hundred and thirty-six, and the average daily attendance at three hundred and ten. The course of study contemplates that the pupil shall pass three years in each department—Primary, Secondary and Grammar—below the High School, and in the High School four years. The completion of this course of study, gives the students the highest academic advantages, and puts them in possession of a fair education, or fits them to take up a collegiate course, as several of the pupils of the school have already done.

Mr. Pickett, the present efficient Superintendent, became connected with the school, in that capacity, in August, 1859, and his faithful labors have been crowned with eminent success. Few possess his qualifications as an educator, and none can be more devoted to their work. In having secured and retained the services of one so well adapted to the position, the school has been very fortunate.

The first students graduating from the school took their diplomas in 1862, since which time there have been graduates each year; the whole number now being twenty-four who have attained that distinction. The prosperity of the school has never been greater than now, and if continued as under its present auspices, its usefulness will never be diminished.

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## SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

[ These just views respecting the salaries of teachers are taken from the recent Report of the Massachusetts Board of Education, an early copy of which has been kindly sent us by JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Esq., Supt. Public Schools, Boston : ]

One of the surest signs of the condition of education in any community, is the estimation in which the profession of teaching is held. Where low views of education prevail, the teacher is valued at a low rate, and his services are poorly paid. On the other hand, where elevated and enlarged ideas of the nature and ends of wise education are entertained, the true dignity of the profession is appreciated, and the importance of securing to it the highest talent and accomplishments is practically acknowledged by providing the requisite means for the

attainment of the end in view. Measured by this standard, our progress as a State, it must be confessed, has not been so satisfactory as could be desired. By a comparison of statistics it appears that in the course of twenty years the average wages of teachers, male and female, in this Commonwealth, have been advanced nominally about fifty per cent. If, in the meantime, the average wealth of the State *per capita* had remained stationary, and if the wages of labor, in general, had not been raised, this increase might justly be regarded as a gratifying proof of progress. But the facts in the case will scarcely justify such a conclusion. Within the period named, such has been the increase in the valuation that the ratio of taxable property to population has been doubled, so that in reality the compensation of teachers has not kept pace with our growth in material wealth. That the wages of labor, of every other description, whether skilled or unskilled, professional or industrial, have risen more than fifty per cent., does not admit of question. The wages of male teachers average fifty-four dollars and seventy-seven cents per month. This rate does not exceed that paid to an ordinary journeyman mechanic. The six thousand two hundred and ninety-five female teachers receive an average of twenty-one dollars and eighty-two cents per month. It is more than probable that an equal number of females could be found in the State who are engaged in industrial occupations at a higher average rate of wages.

These facts demand the serious consideration of the friends of popular education. Without good teaching a school is but a name. But good teaching can be had only from men and women of high ability and ripe culture, and to suppose that such men and women can be attracted to the laborious profession of teaching without adequate compensation, is a fatal delusion. Poor schools can be had cheap, but good schools will always be costly; and if the character of our Public Schools is to be elevated and improved, if they are to be kept up to the standard of excellence required by an advancing civilization, affording competent instruction to every child, it is absolutely essential that the compensation of teachers should be raised in proportion to the general increase of wealth in the community. Teachers will correspond in their character and qualifications to the demands of public sentiment as expressed in the rate of salaries paid. The demand creates the supply. If there is a real demand for gifted men and women, qualified by their intelligence and moral power to do the great work of education as patriotism and religion would wish it done, such men and women will not only be liberally paid, but they will receive other proofs of the consideration in which they are held, and thus they will be secured and retained in the profession. But while so many paths to wealth and promotion are open, while talent is invited through so many broad avenues to emolument and distinction, it is unreasonable, it is preposterous, to expect that superior persons—and only such can be good teachers—can, in sufficient numbers for the wants of the present time, be won to the arduous and responsible office of teaching without stronger inducements than have yet been offered. As to the pecuniary ability of the Commonwealth to pay the teachers of her children, it is sufficient to state that at present only about one mill and a half on a dollar of valuation is appropriated to this object, and in the most wealthy cities the ratio even falls below this small fraction.

## Official Department.

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OFFICE OF OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, }  
Columbus, O., March 19th, 1866. }

HON. JOHN A. NORRIS,  
*State Commissioner of Common Schools:*

DEAR SIR: I take pleasure in tendering to you the customary use of this journal as a means of official communication with the teachers and school officers of the State.

Please accept the assurance of its hearty co-operation with you in all your efforts to improve and elevate our school system.

Very respectfully yours,

E. E. WHITE,  
*Publisher Ohio Educational Monthly.*

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OFFICE OF STATE COMMISSIONER OF COMMON SCHOOLS, }  
Columbus, Ohio, March 21st, 1866. }

HON. E. E. WHITE,  
*Editor and Publisher Ohio Educational Monthly:*

DEAR SIR: Your note of 19th inst., tendering to this office the "customary use of your journal as a means of official communication with the teachers and school-officers of the State," was received yesterday.

It is not my purpose to depart from official precedents, except in cases in which such action may be clearly necessary. A pressing necessity exists for the dissemination of educational literature among teachers and school-officers generally, and the propriety of making the *Monthly* the official organ of this office, is based upon this necessity.

Your kind offer is, therefore, accepted in the spirit in which it is made, and it will afford me pleasure to be instrumental in extending the circulation of the *Monthly*, and, as far as may be, in increasing its usefulness.

It may be proper to remark, that seldom, if ever, has this Department communicated with the teachers of the State, as teachers. Nor does the relation existing between the Department and teachers call for, or even admit of, such communications, except, perhaps, in the form of didactic papers. The pages of the *Monthly* indicate that the time of former Commissioners has been occupied in the discharge of more specific duties.

As "a means of official communication with the school-officers of the State," the *Monthly* would indeed be invaluable, were it placed in the hands of even a majority of such school officers. But it is a lamentable fact, that of the fifteen thousand three hundred (15,300) school-officers with whom this office communicates,\* only about eight hundred (800) are, in their official capacity, subscribers for the journal.

\* The whole number of school officers in the State is about 40,000.—ED. MONTHLY.

Permit me to say, that the "assurance of the hearty co-operation of your journal, in all my efforts to improve and elevate our school-system," affords especial pleasure.

No one familiar with the duties of this Department, needs be told that its value depends largely upon the use made of it, in securing concert of action among the friends of education. This office should be made the *exponent* of the practical wisdom of the State upon educational methods and enterprises.

In view of this fact, and desiring sincerely to guard faithfully the trusts reposed in the office and to execute efficiently the work assigned to it, allow me to hope and to earnestly request that the friends of education generally throughout the State, may give to this Department that practical co-operation, without which it must fail, in a great degree, to secure the ends for which it was established.

Very respectfully,

Your ob't serv't,

JNO. A. NORRIS,

*Commissioner of Common Schools.*

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### SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Since the repeal of the provision of the law levying a special library tax, the library system has increasingly declined in usefulness. This was to be expected, since the very life of the system, in most localities, was the periodical supply of new books. I think I am safe in saying, that a majority of the libraries of the State were not once opened for the distribution of books during the past year. In some townships the books are still scattered among the sub-districts, and no effort is made to collect them, as is required by law.

The fact that 922 districts, or more than one-half of the districts in the State, have appointed librarians, is evidence that the books are still read and appreciated in many localities. I am confident that the teachers of our public schools have it in their power to increase the utility of the library system four-fold. A little effort to interest their pupils in the reading of good books would soon open many libraries, now unused. It is certainly a matter of regret that so little is done in our schools to create a taste for useful reading. That teacher who induces his pupils to read good books, has done a service of higher value than he who merely teaches the *art* of reading. The ability to read is not the end but the means of education.

It is hoped that greater efforts will not only be made to secure the reading of the books now in the libraries, but that boards of education will also use the authority conferred by the amendatory act of 1864, and replace all books that have been lost or destroyed, with new ones. This will not only preserve the libraries, but will maintain an interest in them.—*Commissioner's Annual Report.*



## Editorial Department.

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### A FEW FRANK WORDS.

It is possible that we have over-estimated the interest which the leading teachers and friends of education in the State feel in the work which we have undertaken. If not, we are puzzled to account for the few words of cheer and encouragement we are receiving. Possibly, it may be taken for granted that we are going through with what we have attempted, and that we do not need the stimulus and support of expressions of interest and co-operation. Possibly, there may be a desire that we should abandon the undertaking, and give place to some one more competent to accomplish what is needed. If such a desire exists, we hope that it may be frankly expressed. We are certainly not obliged to look to this field of labor for support, and it will be no great pecuniary sacrifice to withdraw from it whenever our services are not needed.

It is true that we have been able as yet to devote very little time to the business interests of the MONTHLY on account of the large amount of post-official duties that have demanded our attention—duties which no one else could well perform, and which are now happily all discharged. We have keenly realized the loss which this neglect of our own business involved, but it seemed a necessity. We do not, therefore, complain because our expectations, though moderate, have not been fully realized. We have been too long connected with this journal not to know that it requires time and attention. But, under the circumstances, we have felt justified in depending upon the personal efforts of the friends of the cause to increase our subscription list. Some, perhaps we should say many, have not disappointed us. Others to whom we confidently looked for assistance, at least for encouragement, have remained silent.

We have received two or three intimations that the MONTHLY did not contain enough articles from our own pen; that the class of professional articles we once contributed, was missed, etc. We have been obliged to ask our friends to be a little patient and indulgent in this matter, since the articles referred to require much time for their preparation—time which we have been unable until now to command. Meanwhile, we have been fortunate in securing articles of the highest interest and value from our associates and contributors. Indeed, we have felt fully justified in omitting our own poor efforts to make room for the many excellent contributions we have received.

But our hand is now free, and we do not intend to give any one reasonable ground for complaining, in the future, of the absence of professional articles. We cordially invite all who wish to see this feature of the MONTHLY improved, to lend their assistance. We do not wish homilies or lengthy essays, but *practical thoughts and suggestions*. Those who have not the time or disposition to write themselves, are requested to suggest questions which they would like to

see discussed. We shall commence next month a series of articles on the "Theory and Practice of Teaching."

We wish to call attention to the fact, that we can not adapt our pages exclusively or chiefly to any one class of our readers. It would be easy to make the MONTHLY of much greater interest and value to superintendents and principals of graded schools, but, in so doing, we should fail to interest and benefit three-fourths of our readers. Our subscribers are about equally divided between teachers of graded schools, teachers of ungraded country schools, and school-officers, and the MONTHLY must be adapted to each of their respective wants and circumstances. An intelligent city Superintendent, who fully appreciated this necessity, once said to me: "Make the MONTHLY of practical assistance to the great body of our teachers. If I find only one article each month of special interest to me, I shall be fully satisfied."

### HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

The Medical Society of Middlesex county, Mass., having considered for several successive meetings the influence of public schools on the health of children, has authorized the publication of the following maxims as the deliberate opinions of its members:

1st. No child should be allowed to attend school before the beginning of its SIXTH YEAR.

2d. The duration of daily attendance (including the time given to recess and physical exercise) should not exceed FOUR AND A HALF hours for the Primary schools; six hours for the other schools.

3d. There should be no study required out of school,—unless at High Schools; and this should not exceed one hour.

4th. Recess time should be devoted to play outside the school-room—unless during very stormy weather—and as this time rightly belongs to the pupils, they should not be deprived of it except for some serious offense; and those who are not deprived of it should not be ALLOWED to spend it in study; and no child should EVER be confined to the school-room during an entire session. The minimum of recess-time should be FIFTEEN MINUTES IN EACH SESSION, and in Primary schools there should be more than one recess in each session.

5th. Physical exercise should be used in school to prevent nervous and muscular fatigue and to relieve monotony, but NOT as muscular training. It should be practiced by both teachers and children for at least five minutes in every hour not broken by recess, and should be timed by music. In Primary schools every half-hour should be broken by exercise, recess or singing.

6th. Ventilation should be amply provided for by other means than OPEN windows, though these should be used in addition to the special means, during recess and exercise time.

7th. Lessons should be scrupulously apportioned to the average capacity of the pupils; and in Primary schools the SLATE should be used MORE and the books less, and instruction should be given as much as possible on the principles of "Object Teaching."

We heartily accept each of these maxims, the third excepted, and we can endorse that if first permitted to explain our vote—speaking after the manner of Congressmen. The reason assigned for this maxim by the learned physicians who adopt it, is, that adult scholars can not bear more than seven hours of study, and that it is folly to suppose that immature minds in growing bodies

can endure more. Now, as a matter of fact, the pupils in most of our schools do not study *three* hours a day—in many of our lower schools not to exceed *one* hour is given to actual study. The daily session of six hours is reduced by recesses and opening and closing exercises to about five hours; and even in our Grammar schools full one-half of this time is devoted to recitations and other exercises which afford a degree of mental and bodily relief. The fact that the schools are in session but five days each week, is also to be considered. *If* the other six maxims laid down by the Middlesex physicians are faithfully observed, we do not see why a moderate amount of home study need be injurious to pupils who are twelve years of age and upwards. If, on the contrary, children breathe poison during the day and have neither physical exercise nor out-door plays, and consequently return home from school brain-weary, nervous, and, possibly, afflicted with headache, no home-study should be required.

It is the manner and conditions of study, rather than study itself, that injures health. The testimony of statistics is conclusive, that proper study is conducive to health and longevity. The duration of life among scholars and literary men, notwithstanding their general neglect of out-door exercise, is greater than among those not addicted to brain-work. Indeed it stands to reason, that as the body of man was made for the indwelling of an intelligent, rational soul, the development of that soul by study and investigation need not necessarily be a drain upon the vital powers and functions of the body.

There is, of course, a natural limit to the amount of mental effort which can be safely required of children. They may be goaded or stimulated to a ruinous degree of mental exertion; and it is beyond question true, that this sometimes occurs in the public schools of our cities and towns, as well as in colleges and other private schools. In some schools the pressure to cause pupils to reach a high per centage in examinations, is excessive, and certainly ought to be abated. Teachers should not be subjected to such powerful temptations to neglect the health of their pupils that they may prepare them to pass brilliant examinations, to secure the commendation of the school authorities and the public. Our school work must be measured by a truer standard. But in abating this evil of unwise pressure, we must be careful not to break down a reasonable standard of study and thoroughness in our schools. Because a few children are over-tasked and injured, it certainly is not necessary to treat each generation of youth as though health and long life depended upon their being fools.

Let us see to it that the study of the pupils in our schools is of a kind adapted to their mental as well as bodily condition; let us avoid premature mental exertion, either by forcing the development of their minds beyond the growth of their bodies or by cramming their memories with incomprehensible abstractions and generalizations; let us secure vigorous study when the brain is not in sympathy with an over-loaded stomach; let us reduce as much as possible the *fret* and *worry* which arise from an attempt to prepare lessons in half the time necessary for their mastery; let physical exercises and changes of posture be made to alternate with periods of study and recitations; let the pupils have *pure air* and cheerful and inspiring conditions of study—in a word, let the *laws of health* be observed in the management of our schools and the evil of over-study will largely disappear. Indeed it is my firm belief, that in the case of a majority of

the pupils in our schools above twelve years of age, the absence of vigorous, earnest study is a more wide-spread evil than excessive study.

We would, in conclusion, call attention to the fact that the sickly appearance and poor-health of children are due largely to causes which lie outside of our school-rooms. Among these causes are a want of bodily exercise, unwholesome food, late hours, unventilated sleeping-rooms, insufficient and fashionable clothing, and unhealthy parents. No amount of physical training or sanitary discipline in our schools can be made a universal panacea for these evils. But let us see to it that the school-life of children does not aggravate them.

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## TWELFTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.

This report, the third and last made by the late Commissioner, is now ready for distribution. It contains two hundred and thirty-two pages, including the appendix which contains the Commissioner's special report on Normal Schools; the report of the State Board of Examiners; seventy pages of statistical tables; statements of County Auditors respecting the condition of schools, school-houses, and school libraries; blank forms for school records and reports; answers to questions on the School Law; circulars to School Officers, including the circular containing the Commissioner's classified series of "Questions on the Theory and Practice of Teaching," and the circular relating to the management of Teachers' Institutes; seven pages of "Practical Suggestions to Teachers;" and a full index.

The tables of statistics embrace, in addition to the usual abstracts of the returns of County Auditors—which include returns from every school district in the State—tables relating to Graded Schools, Colleges, Female Seminaries, and Academies, and an important table giving the names, number of schools, rate of local tax, etc., of every school district in the State that failed to sustain its schools twenty-four weeks, as required by law. The tables relating to Graded Schools contain much important information respecting the management and condition of the schools in seventy-six of the cities and leading towns of the State.

The following are the leading topics discussed by the Commissioner: Condition and Progress of the Schools; Labors of the Commissioner; School Statistics—Duties of Teachers and School Officers in their Preparation; Number of Schools; Local School Taxes; School Expenditures; Wages of Teachers; School Houses; Number of Weeks Schools were in Session; School Attendance—Average School Advantages of the Youth of the State; Truancy and Absenteeism; School Libraries; Union or Graded Schools; Colored Schools; County School Examiners; Teachers' Institute Fund; State Board of Examiners; Local Boards of Examiners; State Institutions for the Education of Unfortunate Youth; Colleges, Female Seminaries, and Academies; Measures for the Improvement of the Schools; County School Superintendents; Special Agencies for the Training of Teachers—Normal Schools; Military Instruction Schools; and Agricultural College.

The law as amended in 1865, provides for the sending of a copy of the report to the clerk of each sub-district as well as to the clerk of each board of education, and to each county officer having duties under the school law, including School Examiners. The number of copies allowed the Commissioner for general distribution is quite limited—being much less than heretofore. Teachers and friends of education, other than school officers, who may wish to secure a copy, will do well to apply to the Commissioner for the same at an early day.

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### ROUTINE.

Three hundred and twenty-nine years before the birth of Christ, Alexander the Great led his armies to the banks of the Ganges, and brought the quick, active Greek in contact with a peculiar people, whose social system was so unlike any other as to excite the wonder and astonishment of even the half-crazy conqueror of the world. It was a system of castes separated from each other by such distinct degrees as to render the slightest contact a contamination and a crime. The son followed the occupation of his father; no hope of improvement, no danger, while following the beaten track, of disgrace. Their religious system was a vague Pantheism,—its leading doctrine being that divinity was present in every thing, animate and inanimate,—from which arose an idolatry, the most grotesque the mind of man has ever invented.

Here was a society governed by fixed laws—the most trifling details of every day life being written down in their religious books—their observance enforced under the penalty of the severest punishments, both here and hereafter. This system was declared, by its teachers, to be of divine origin; hence, perfect in all its parts. Nothing could be added to improve it: change would destroy the beauty of the divine original.

The Hindoo of Alexander's time is the Hindoo of to day. His belief is essentially the same—his daily life, his food, even the fashion and material of his raiment, the same. The Greek planted colonies in India,—some say seventy cities were built by Alexander alone; but Greek culture never made an impression upon its people. The colonists were either destroyed, merged with the native population, or they wandered back to their homes on the shores of the blue Egean.

Since then the Tartar hords have overrun the land—the Mahomedan has gained a foothold upon it—the Christian has elevated the standard of the cross—and all have brought to bear, upon the obdurate race, the whole might of their physical power; but beyond a few converts to each system, and the suppression of a few of the most debasing and inhuman rites by armed force, they have accomplished comparatively nothing. The shadow of a great superstition rests upon him, the weight of a deadening routine crushes him to the earth, and until the whole system is scattered to the winds, the Hindoo will think the same thoughts, worship the same idols, live the same life, his forefathers did two thousand years ago. He is the true type of the stationary man—the world's most perfect specimen of an ease-loving, fossilized old fogy.

T. W. H.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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INDIANA.—The State Board of Education held a meeting for the examination of applicants for State Certificates on the 14th and 15th of March.—The Board of Trustees of the State Normal School met on the 9th and 10th of January, and issued a circular respecting the location of the institution. The place that makes the largest donations, gets the School, provided it also furnishes reasonable assurances for its success. The State appropriates \$10,000 a year for its support. A Model School is to be connected with the Normal School. Indiana is awake in school matters, and we are glad to see that the State Union Convention had the good sense to re-nominate Superintendent HOSS, whose zealous and well-directed labors are full of promise of continued success. We hope the people will ratify the action of the Convention.—The *School Journal* for March gives a full account of the killing of a teacher by one of his pupils, at Adams, Decatur county. The crime created a great excitement in the locality.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The second annual report of the State Superintendent, Hon. W. B. WHITE, is upon our table. It is a brief document, but shows clearly that the foundations of the new free school system are being well laid. The want of school-houses is the great obstacle to be overcome. There are but 133 school-houses in the State. This destitution will be the better realized in connection with the fact that there are in Ohio 128 school-houses, on an average, to each county. The average value of the school-houses, not including the eight in the city of Wheeling, is less than \$63. Of the 84,418 youth in the State between the ages of six and twenty-one, 15,972 were enrolled in the schools with an average daily attendance of 7,761. The schools were continued, on an average, a little less than three months. The people are, however, taking hold of the system, and the indications of progress are hopeful.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The *Teacher* is now edited by Prof. W. P. ATKINSON, of Cambridge, formerly an associate editor. This step is taken to secure for the *Teacher* greater unity in its scope and character than was possible under the former arrangement. Prof. ATKINSON is well-known as the author of a vigorous pamphlet on "Classical and Scientific Studies." He is an earnest advocate of a reform in the course of instruction in our colleges. His views on this subject crop out very frequently in the *Teacher*.

MICHIGAN.—The Principalship of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, made vacant by the resignation of Prof. WELCH, has been tendered to Hon. J. M. GREGORY, late State Superintendent, and now President of Kalamazoo College, and Prof. WICKESHAM, of the Pennsylvania Normal School, at Millersville. Both gentlemen have declined the position. Mr. GREGORY is preparing a work on Education which promises to be one of great interest.—The State University has 1,195 students.

THE RHODE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER, in speaking of the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, says: "This able journal has completed its fifteenth year, and, from its present appearances, will soon be able to follow the example of the *Massachusetts Teacher*, and set 'up for itself.'" We regret to be obliged to confess that appearances seem to be against us, as the MONTHLY "set up for itself" several years ago. We were congratulating ourselves on being the leader in this business, and was about to congratulate the *Mass. Teacher* on its ability to follow.

**IOWA.**—The March number of the *Instructor and School Journal* contains a full report of the discussion in the General Assembly of the bill establishing a State Normal School separate from the State University. Although the bill was defeated, there seems to have been no weighty objection raised against Normal Schools. The objections were against some of the details of the bill. The want of funds was also strongly urged. The friends of the measure propose to try again.

**CHICAGO.**—The nursery is getting the decided start of the School Board of this growing city. The average daily attendance of pupils this year is nearly 2,000 greater than during the previous year, while no material increase has been made in school accommodations. The result is, the school-rooms are uncomfortably crowded, and hundreds of children are denied admittance. Population will have to cast anchor while the school authorities study the census table.

**OSWEGO NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL.**—This institution, now under State control, entered the new building on the 28th of February. Its course of training has been widened, and a thorough review of the usual academic branches has been provided for as a preparation for the professional course. The elementary preparatory course is limited to twenty weeks, and the elementary training course to one year, or forty weeks. This course is more specially designed for the preparation of primary teachers. The advanced preparatory course is not limited as to time,—each pupil being required to be properly prepared in the branches of study named in the course before entering upon the advanced training course which is to occupy one term of twenty weeks. It will thus be seen that a full training course is one year and a half, not including the preparatory studies. If this standard is maintained, the Oswego Training School will lead all other Normal Schools in the country in the thoroughness of its professional training. The new building was provided by the city of Oswego, and is commodious and beautifully located. Its length is 153 feet, and its depth 130 feet. It contains full accommodations for 600 children in the Model and Practising Schools, and from 260 to 300 pupils in the Normal Department. Seventeen teachers with E. A. SHELTON, Esq., as Principal, constitute the board of instructors.

**DR. DIO LEWIS'S TRAINING SCHOOL.**—It will be seen by reference to our advertising pages, that the tenth session of this school will open on the third of July next. The first session opened in January, 1861, with a single pupil, Mr. ROYCE, of this State. The eighth class numbered forty, and it is expected that the tenth will nearly double this number; and as Ohio furnished the entire first class, she ought certainly to be well represented in the tenth. We are informed that the teachers prepared by Dr. LEWIS are now teaching the New Gymnastics in all of the Northern States, in Kentucky and Tennessee, and even in England; and that there is no department of teaching more remunerative, or more healthful and pleasant. Ladies are encouragingly successful. Has not every community in the State an interest in this method of physical training?

**SPRING INSTITUTES.**—Teachers' Institutes continuing one week each, are to be held as follows:

Sandusky county, at Fremont, March 26.  
 Richland and Ashland counties, at Shelby, April 2.  
 Tuscarawas county, at New Philadelphia, April 2.  
 Lorain county, at Elyria, April 2.  
 Medina county, at Medina, April 9.  
 Greene county, at Xenia, April 23.

Other Institutes may be announced, of which we have as yet no information.

**PIKE COUNTY.**—The teachers of Pike county met at Waverly on the 10th of March, and organized a county teachers' association. The officers elected are earnest and devoted friends of education, and a good institute will doubtless be organized.

**ALLEN COUNTY.**—The teachers' association of Allen county is holding institutes of two days' session each, in different parts of the county. The object is to bring the institute to the very doors of the teachers, with the hope that they may thus become interested in its success. The first session was held at Lafayette on the 22d and 23d days of February, under the direction of Messrs. JOHNSON and EDDY, of Lima. The second session is to be held at Elida on the 30th and 31st days of March.

**NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.**—We have received a copy of the "Journal of Proceedings and Lectures" at the seventh annual session, held at Harrisburg, August 16, 17, 18, 1865. The pamphlet contains in addition to the journal five papers, including the report of Mr. RICKOFF, of Cincinnati, on the "National Educational Bureau." Copies of the pamphlet may be obtained of JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Albany, New York, at 50 cents each.

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION will hold its next meeting at *Indianapolis*, commencing on the *fifteenth of August*. This announcement is made now in order that the various State Teachers' Associations can fix their times of meeting with reference to it. Full programmes will be published in due time. J. P. WICKERSHAM,  
*President National Teachers' Association.*

**SALARIES OF BOSTON TEACHERS.**—The School Board of Boston, Mass., recently raised the salaries of the Teachers of the Public Schools to the following figures: Superintendent, \$4,000; Masters (Principals) of Latin, High, and Normal Schools, \$3,500, Submasters \$2,800, Ushers \$2,000; Masters (Principals) of Grammar Schools, \$2,500, Submasters \$2,000, Ushers \$1,500; Music Teacher in Primary Schools, \$2,000; Gymnastic Teacher in all the Schools, \$3,000; Female teachers—Head Assistant in Normal School, \$1,000, Assistant \$700; Head Assistant in Grammar Schools, \$700, Assistants \$600; Teachers in Primary Schools, \$450 first year, \$500 second year, \$550 third year, and \$600 fourth year. The schedule fixes the salaries of each of the male teachers for the first year \$400 less than the above figures, 100 being added yearly until the fifth year when the maximum salary is reached.

REV. ELIPHALET NOTT, D.D., LL.D., who has since the year 1804, acted as President of Union College, N. Y., died on the 29th of January, in the ninety-third year of his age. Dr. NOTT was one of the most distinguished educators of the country. He commenced teaching at the age of sixteen, more than seventy-five years ago, and continued almost constantly in the profession up to the time of his death. He was not a college graduate, having attended college but a single year. More than 4,000 students graduated at Union College during his Presidency.

**ASHLAND TEACHERS.**—On last Friday the teachers connected with our schools, from Primary to High School, sent in their resignations to the Board for their acceptance. They have all been accepted; and now, we understand, the entire school is to be re-organized. This does not occur from any inefficiency of the past teachers, but from a lack of general interest by the entire community. The general condition of our school buildings certainly is evidence that the machinery does not work evenly. We want a reform. The interests of our up-growing population demand this. Let there be a meeting of the citizens held, to promote more general opinions, and to secure unity of action. Good may result from this movement; that such may be the case is the sincere desire of every dutiful citizen and every lover of our educational interests.—*Ashland Times.*



**CINCINNATI.**—The Legislature has passed a law granting to the School Board of Cincinnati power to levy an additional tax of half a mill for school purposes. The maximum levy is now two and one-half mills on the dollar.—The School Board is discussing the matter of transferring the upper grade or grades of the District Schools to the Intermediate Schools, and increasing the number of Intermediate Schools. The discussion reveals considerable opposition to the Intermediate system.—The First District School gives us *nine* subscribers; the Ninth District, *sixteen*; and the East District Colored School, *nine*.

**MOSES T. BROWN, Esq.,** closes his connection with the firm of Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle, Cincinnati, on the first of May, to open a "School for Vocal Culture," either in Cincinnati, or in Boston, Mass. He proposes also to give Lectures, Readings, etc., wherever his services may be needed.

**ERASABLE LEAF TABLET.**—This tablet has a white surface, and is designed to take the place of slates or paper in the preparation of written school exercises. A *soft* lead pencil must be used, and the marks erased with a damp cloth or sponge. See advertisement.

**SPENCERIAN STEEL PENS.**—These pens are highly elastic and pliable, coming nearer to a good quill pen than any other steel pen that we have used. Teachers and others wishing to secure a superior article will do well to give these pens a trial. See advertisement.

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## BOOK NOTICES.

**SPENCERIAN KEY TO PRACTICAL PENMANSHIP.** Prepared for the "Spencerian Authors" by H. C. SPENCER. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co.

It is illustrated and embellished with numerous fine engravings, including a life-like steel portrait of the distinguished penman and author, PLATT R. SPENCER, who nearly fifty years ago, in the wilds of Northern Ohio, originated the system which has been the admiration of so many thousands of his countrymen. The work is elegantly printed on fine tinted paper, and is bound in superb style. If

"A thing of beauty is a joy forever,"

this "Key" will certainly unlock no inconsiderable felicity. The successive chapters treat of the theory of penmanship; materials and implements; position; movements; classification of letters and figures; forms of small letters; forms of capital letters; figures; spacing; shading; business writing; ladies' hand; variety of style; black-board writing; writing in primary schools; teaching in common schools and seminaries (an excellent chapter); counting and dictation; specimen books; teaching in commercial or business colleges; "Chirhythmography;" penmaking as a profession; and drawing. The appendix contains a lecture by the late PLATT R. SPENCER on the "Origin and Progress of Writing." The work is, in short, a complete and practical guide to the art of penmanship.

**WILLSON'S INTERMEDIATE THIRD READER;** of a Grade between the Second and Third Readers of the School and Family Series. By MARCIUS WILLSON. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We entertain no doubt respecting either the practicability or desirability of presenting in a series of school readers very many of the interesting and valuable facts of natural history. Children must understand and be interested in what they attempt to

read well; and what can be more comprehensible and attractive to the young than the simple and beautiful lessons which nature teaches? The great majority of children take delight in listening to anecdotes of insects, birds, bears, tigers, and other animals. But we regard technical science poor material to embody in a school reader. The simple *facts* of science may be inculcated in lessons designed to teach the art of reading; but the attempt to classify these facts or present them as a *system*, in a school reader, is, in our judgment, an error. Here lies our objection to the "School and Family Series of Readers." The idea upon which the series is based is a good one, but *the idea is carried too far in the higher books.*

The new Intermediate Series promises to be free from this objection. The Third Reader now before us, presents in incident, anecdote, and poetic description, many interesting facts of natural history, but is divested of all scientific technicalities and classifications. We know of no school reader of the same grade that presents a greater variety of excellent pieces for teaching reading. The illustrations are numerous and beautiful.

**MONTEITH'S PHYSICAL AND INTERMEDIATE GEOGRAPHY.** In Two Parts. By JAMES MONTEITH. New York: Published by A. S. Barnes & Burr. 1866.

This new work is an encouraging indication that the much-needed reform in our methods of teaching Geography, is steadily progressing, and is sure to be consummated. "A description of the earth's surface" is to become something more than a catalogue of names and an infinite multiplicity of descriptive (?) details.

Part First is a simple treatise on Physical Geography, in which the subject is presented as a science, and explained by familiar illustrations on the plan of object teaching. Part Second is devoted to Local and Civil Geography, and contains maps of great clearness; a series of map exercises on the plan of White's Class-Book of Geography; and a pronouncing vocabulary of geographical names. We are specially pleased with the fact that the maps and map exercises are not encumbered with a useless multiplicity of detail. They present the outline facts of Local Geography. It is a question in our mind whether this second part should not be studied before the first part. We commend the work to progressive teachers for their examination.

**HALL'S SCHOOL REGISTERS,** compiled by JOHN W. HALL, Principal of Dayton High School. Dayton: Payne & Holden, Publishers.

Some two years since we prepared, with much care, a blank form for a Teacher's Certificate, and recommended the same to County Boards of School Examiners. Almost the next mail brought us a blank certificate prepared by Mr. HALL for the Examiners of Montgomery county, and before he had seen our "model." In its form, language, and arrangement, it was almost a *fac-simile* of ours! In November last we prepared for the new edition of School Laws, a form for a Teacher's Daily School Register. Before the volume was distributed, but after it was printed, we received a copy of Hall's Common School Register, and, to our surprise, found it, in almost every respect, the very form we had officially recommended. Of course, we can commend Hall's School Registers!

**OUR YOUNG FOLKS.**—We have not as yet seen a copy of this new magazine which is making such a stir throughout the country. Well, if we can find the subscription price in the publisher's advertisement, we intend to see what our young folks think of it.

**HARPER'S MAGAZINE.**—The April number is an excellent one. Terms, \$4.00 a year.

# THE OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

*A Journal of School and Home Education.*

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MAY, 1866.

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Old Series, Vol. XV, No. 5.

New Series, Vol. VII, No. 5.

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## TALKS AFTER WORKING HOURS.—VI.

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BY AN EX-MECHANIC.

Six years passed away. Contrary to our expectation, Jones persisted in his determination to give Clarence a thorough education. For example's sake, purely, he denied himself the excitement of his favorite amusement, and became, per force, as fond of home enjoyments as any reformed man can be. The management of his son was attended with infinite trouble, the first year; for, when the pendulum swung back, the old instincts and habits struggled for the mastery, and rebelled against wholesome restraint. It was no holiday task to exterminate the seeds of evil sown during years of neglect. Many a half-day was spent in ferreting out the wayward boy among the hay-lofts and dilapidated buildings of the town, when the truant mood was upon him—but untiring perseverance conquered. He saw his father was in earnest. He felt that the hand of parental authority was laid upon him in love, though with firmness, and often with severity. Feeble, at first, but daily gaining strength, conscience began its work. The wild, reckless freedom of other days had many charms—but convictions of duty, the self-denial and rigid economy he saw practiced at home for his sake, the remembrance of his great sorrow and good resolves when death hovered around

his father's sick-bed, the tears and entreaties of his mother, gradually won him from its fascinations. He finished the preparatory course of the High School with credit—took and held fair rank in College, and graduated with the honors of his class.

Carson and I commenced business for ourselves, in a neighboring town, during the Sophomore year. The cares of our new enterprise prevented our taking much immediate interest in his progress and welfare. He visited us the spring after he graduated. He had grown up to be a tall, fine-looking young man, self-poised, confident, sparkling in conversation with wit and repartee, as when a boy, but bearing with him unmistakable evidences of culture and self-control. Sitting together in my room, at evening, we talked of the many ways open for young men to win fortune and renown. I asked him what profession he proposed to follow.

*Clarence*—My views have not changed since Ransom cancelled my indentures. I shall be a mechanic.

*Carson*—There, just as I feared—throwing yourself away for a whim. What in the world induces you to learn a trade, when with your education and talents you can so easily make your fortune as a professional man?

*Cl.*—Simply because the professions have no attractions for me, and practical mechanics have. The professions are crowded already, but master mechanics are scarce, as you well know.

*M.*—You have heard what the old judge told his son who objected to studying law because the profession was overcrowded, have you not?

*Cl.*—Yes: "There is an abundance of room *above* them." The "crowd" does not intimidate me, but I can not even think of being a lawyer without a feeling of repugnance. I have some times thought of being a teacher, but, after a rigid self-examination, I can not find in me the elements essential for eminent success in that calling, and I can not bear the thought of being second rate in any thing. I know I can make a first-rate mechanic. So, despite the sneers and remonstrances of my classmates, I go into the old shop next week, and commence where I left off six years ago.

*M.*—Do not suppose I disapprove your decision because I inquire concerning the motives which govern you in making it. Are

you sure that a latent dislike for intellectual work has not led you to choose a trade rather than a profession?

*Cl.*—I have asked myself that question, again and again—for there was a time when brain-work was extremely distasteful to me. I liked the lawless roving of the Fancy far better than the well-ordered, systematic movements of the Understanding. The firmness of my father, who kept me at school, studying books I positively hated, though I thought it tyranny at the time, saved me from intellectual bankruptcy. I was forced to come down from the clouds, and plod along the dusty thoroughfares of the real world. It was not long before I learned it was not so common-place a world, after all. There were glories and beauties in it, permanent, tangible, not shadowy, fleeting, like the tinsel-work of that other world. I now derive more real enjoyment from close thinking than I ever did from vague dreaming. I do sometimes indulge in a bit of revery, and I enjoy it—much more, however, do I enjoy its subsequent analysis—the *identifying* of its components—the chase after some fugitive element, whose personality I can not clearly define, it assumes so many illusive forms, but whose sameness does not admit of question. Hence, I think I can honestly say “no” in answer to your question. It is because there is such a wide field for thought in mechanics that I have chosen to train my hands to embody the creations of my brain in material forms.

*M.*—Your reason is an original one to say the least. Most apprentices look upon their trade as an unmitigated evil. They learn it from compulsion of some sort, and follow it as a means of livelihood, listlessly, without a particle of enthusiasm. often become industrious from habit—rarely from inclination.

*Cl.*—I presume so. My classmates were always extolling professions. Not one of them had the remotest idea of ever being a farmer or a mechanic. I stood alone among them—“the representative of the labor interest,” as they called me. I wondered at this, for no one can fail to see that the future of our country must be an industrial one. Machinery is the Archimedes lever by which the world is to be moved. There are other motors in nature than those we are now using. This generation may not discover them, but it may open the way for their discovery by the next. Why do our young men crowd themselves into professions

where they are not needed, when they can be happier, more useful, more independent, in some industrial pursuit? It seems to me that selfishness alone would lead them to select employments which promise the certainty of a living, and the probability of wealth and renown.

*M.*—All are not born mechanics. Nature builds up a Brahmin class in every community, whose mission it is to give tone and consistence to the world's thought—to govern the world through the might and power of ideas. Men have just found out that this class does not transmit its special endowments from father to son, but gathers its members from all ranks and conditions. Would you try to make farmers and mechanics of such men?

*C.*—By no means—but many think they belong to that Brahmin class whose true place is somewhere else. They shrink from toil, from the stern realities of life. They despise the work which builds up nations and forges the bonds which unite societies together. They form a pseudo-aristocracy—without sufficient native force or moral stamina enough to make themselves even respectable. They possess the vices of one class and can not appreciate the virtues of any other. When they find their true place in the world's great workshop, they will learn that men become truly great only by doing what is most needed to be done. Our farms are becoming less productive, year by year, through ignorance of nature's laws. A hue and cry is raised against scientific farming because certain experiments have failed, as might have been expected, or because unpracticed hands have vainly attempted to obtain results which belong to skill alone. With practical skill we must unite intelligent thought. Then our farming interests will not be shorn of their profits by wasteful extravagance, or our farms deteriorate in value through overcropping and bad management. Our manufactories have always been progressive, but even they are not above criticism. Let each workman be an educated man, let each brain teem with thought, as the shuttle flies or the hammer falls, and soon machinery will be invented whose power shall astonish the world.

*M.*—I hardly think your views will suit the conservatism of these days. Men seem to think we have reached the summit of human perfection already. In their opinion, the height of human wisdom is to preserve, intact, what we already have. Take care,

or you will tread on the gouty toes of the easy-going present, and be rebuked for your awkwardness.

*Cl.*—I hate conservatism. The only thing I disliked in college was the course of lectures on Political Economy, and a short splurge by a dapper little scion of your conservative family on Governmental Polity. The next few years will teach us some thing we shall wish we had learned long ago. At any rate, if I am not very much mistaken, they will show us the difference between educated labor, and indolent, conceited ignorance.

*Newsboy in the Street.*—Bugletown Times Extra! Great news! Secesh firing into Sumter like forty! Buy a paper?

*Cl.*—There, the train is fired. I studied gunnery once for pastime. The cross of fire will soon be sent through the land, and we young men must rally around the old flag. I think I will enter the artillery service, and learn my trade after the war is over.

*Car.*—You will not have to wait long for that. Uncle Sam will make short work of those Southern hot-heads.

*Cl.*—Don't be too confident. Willful, stubborn ignorance has a species of force in it, which is by no means contemptible. We are in for a fight with a lot of Leslie's conservatives. Why block up the path of progress? Providence decrees that they must clear the track. I was a stubborn, self-willed boy once, and know what a fight I made against those who would reform me. The "bad boy" down South must be coerced; coercion means war, and war means—well we shall see what, after the smoke has cleared away.

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## HOW STANDS THE ACCOUNT?

MR. EDITOR: I am among those who have always contended that teachers should be liberally paid—much more liberally than has as yet been done in our country; that they ought to receive something more for their services than that bare support which most school trustees think it would be the height of extravagance to go beyond. I think they should not only be paid enough for their labor to support themselves and families with comfort, but

enough to leave a snug little sum after these expenses have been met, to lay by for the coming time when no man can work. I believe nothing short of such a liberal compensation, can ever give the teacher's calling the dignity of a useful and honorable profession.

But while we demand that the teacher's toil of body and brain should receive its just reward, is there not another side to this question? Has not the public a right to demand that no one shall enter upon a work so important in its results without a thorough preparation for it? Is not the time and money they have expended to fit themselves for their vocation one of the grounds on which teachers found their claims to a larger remuneration for their labor than that received by mechanics, clerks, etc.? Now, what in general are the facts in the case? Being an examiner of teachers, I profess to be pretty well posted in the matter.

At the last meeting of the State Association it was resolved that Boards of Examiners be requested to inquire of candidates for certificates what educational works they have read, and whether they are subscribers to any educational periodical. The Board with which I am connected, has endeavored to comply strictly with this request. The result, I am sorry to say, is not flattering to the professional spirit and intelligence of teachers. I have not the result for the year by me, but I give that of the last examination held by our Board, which I suppose to be about the average. There were twenty-five candidates examined, and of this number but five take any educational periodical, and but eight of them had ever read any professional work. The excuses made for this delinquency are multifarious. Some used to take an educational journal, but found it so dry and uninteresting that they left it off. Others never find any thing worth reading in any of them. It would be naturally supposed that these last must have a very fine and highly cultivated taste—too fine to relish common human nature's daily food. But I have not found this generally to be the case; and I give them but small encouragement to throw the blame that should rest on their own indifference over on the shoulders of the conductors of the educational press. I wish to put the question squarely to all such teachers, whether they think they have any just claims that will entitle them to come before the community and demand a high salary? On the contrary,



does it not require a good deal of what is vulgarly called "cheek" to enable them to do it? Can they expect the public to rush forward, and pour a golden shower on those so utterly indifferent to their work? Can such teachers ever have caught a glimpse even of the nobleness of the work of fashioning an immortal soul? And ought they not to feel abashed at their own emptiness? Yet such is not the case. The loudest declaimers upon the infinite greatness of the profession, are often the very teachers who have never contributed a cent or an idea to that greatness. They can't afford a dollar a year for professional reading, and yet claim the pay of a physician or lawyer who has spent years of study and hundreds of dollars to fit himself for his vocation. Is this fair?

I here venture to assert, without fear of successful contradiction, that a very large portion of our teachers have never spent an hour of study or a dollar in money, that they would not have spent for their education if they had never expected to teach at all. The education they have received has not had the remotest reference to a preparation for teaching, but is such as every intelligent man desires for his own respectability and happiness. Suppose a young man just from college should set up as a physician or lawyer, without any special preparation for the duties of either, and claim a generous patronage on account of the money and time spent in passing through his college curriculum, would the community be likely to recognize the validity of such a claim?

Now this may seem like very plain talk, and these facts may look a little ugly, but then nothing short of plain talk will answer at times, and the facts are facts that will not be blinked out of sight. Teachers have a noble calling, and if many of them do not make greater efforts to make themselves noble than they have yet done, they will remain forever unworthy of that calling.

You and some of the rest of us, Mr. Editor, have been striving for years to convince the people that they do not pay their teachers any thing near the worth of their work. Ought not these teachers themselves unite to prove themselves worthy that liberal remuneration a generous people ought always to be willing to bestow on the instructors of their children?

One word in conclusion to prevent misapprehension: Not one

word of this censure is designed to apply to those noble teachers who are conscientiously striving to render themselves more worthy their high vocation.

Yours truly,

EXAMINER.

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## VOCAL CULTURE IN OUR SCHOOLS.

THE AMERICAN UNION SPEAKER, containing standard and recent Selections in Prose and Poetry, for Recitation and Declamation, with Introductory Remarks on Elocution, and Explanatory Notes. By JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Sup't Boston Public Schools. Boston: Taggard & Thompson, 1865.

"Of making many books there is no end," concisely said Solomon. Yet a good book, even now, with a plethora of publication, and in the rush and hurry of our American life, gets cordial welcome. And strange as it may seem to the authors and publishers of the many "Speakers," "Elocutionary Manuals," "Selections for Declamation," "Guides to Oratory," etc., with which the book-vender's shelves groan, there is need enough of just such a standard work as this, to aid the student in attaining that most valuable art, the crowning grace of liberal culture, a correct and impressive elocution.

To speak of a minor, though not unimportant matter, the publishers have done their work well. The volume of nearly six hundred pages, is a handsome and presentable book, and the mechanical and artistic execution of the work is admirable. This is no small matter in these evil days of veneer, glue, shoddy and cheat; and Taggard & Thompson deserve well at the hands of the public, for the every-way creditable appearance of this volume. The paper is good, the binding substantial, and the general air and finish of the book worthy of a successful imitation by too many of our school-book publishers.

From our knowledge of Mr. Philbrick, the author of this work, we were led to expect not alone good theory in the matter of elocutionary treatment, good taste, and evidence of a wide acquaintance with English and Classic Literature in selections, but more

than this, a practical adaptation of the entire matter, spirit, and purpose of the work to the wants of our Public Schools. And in this we have not been disappointed. Mr. Philbrick has had an experience equaled by few of the educators now prominent in the work of popular education. For some years the principal of the Quincy Grammar School in Boston, then called to Connecticut as the successor of Henry Barnard, and next invited to the superintendency of the Boston Public Schools; which latter position he has made prominent in the eyes of the country by a judicious, practical direction of the school interests of at once the most conservative, and yet in her wise provisions for popular education, the most truly progressive city of the Union. But we do not intend to write a biography of Mr. Philbrick; for we know that a well-written life is more rare than a well-spent one, and we fear that Mr. Philbrick might feel constrained to say of us, as Dr. Johnson did of Boswell, when he learned of the latter's intention to write his life: "If he really intends to write my life, I seriously think of taking his to prevent it!"

The author in his preface, speaking of the design of the book, says:

"The design of this book is two-fold: to meet the present demand for new selections, *susted to the spirit of the hour*; and also to furnish a choice collection of standard pieces on which time has set his lasting seal."

It is refreshing to those of us who remember, in the "ancient regime" of the Republic, the ban put upon all manly utterances in favor of impartial liberty, to glance through these "new selections suited to the spirit of the hour." We can well remember when slavery pad-locked the lips and chained the press of every Boston school-book publisher! When Pierpont's Readers, then published by a Boston house, were revised and emended to suit a slave-breeding market! Thank God, the occasions for such sycophancy and treachery are clean gone! Never again in America shall it be necessary to emasculate the best specimens of ancient and modern oratory to reach the depraved level of a debased and debauched public sentiment. For chief among the compensations for the terrible disasters, crimes, and treasons, through which the Republic has passed, comes this of an *emancipated literature*! By ordinance of God, the greatest blessings cost most. We have

paid the price of national redemption in blood from next the heart. And if from the battle-fields, the desolations, the anguish and tears, the heroic sacrifices of the countless thousands who have fallen in the fierce, unnatural strife, shall be wrested this one great boon, the past four years of disaster shall not seem unmixed evil.

The selections from the classics are excellent. The author has given us, also, some of the finest selections from the English and Irish orators. But what is most noticeable is the happy prominence given to the sentiments of those orators, both ancient and modern, which (to quote again the author's preface) "advocate the inalienable rights of man and denounce the crime of human bondage." The old Roman Cicero speaks on "The Crisis of the Nation;" and the American Cicero, Edward Everett, responds in the most patriotic effort of his cultured life-time, with the "Crimes of the Rebellion." Lord Brougham thunders his "Denunciation of Slavery," and Charles Sumner answers back with his "Abolition of Slavery in the District of Columbia." Lord Erskine's "British Tyranny in India," is complimented by Wendell Phillips' "Secession the Death of Slavery." Henry Wilson, Beecher, Butler, Dickinson, Banks, Boutwell, Gov. Andrew, Carl Schurz, Dana, utter such sentiments as never before found place in an American UNION Speaker; but which are the newest growth of the changed conditions of the Republic.

The author has shown a nice discrimination in his selections from our statesmen whose names will ever be household words with the American people. Some of the grandest utterances of Webster and Clay—some of the finest passages of Everett and Choate; the learning of Story; the philanthropy of Channing and Horace Mann; the rugged patriotism of Douglas; the dear, familiar, homely wisdom of Abraham Lincoln,—all find a place in this first truly *National* Speaker.

As an admirer of that wonderful orator and patriot, we thank the author for giving place to Kossuth's "Ides of March," one of the finest contributions to the English tongue made in this century. We are glad to notice, also, the christian and scholarly words of Grimke', the patriot and humane South Carolinian.

The poetic selections are all good. Those from our American authors especially so. We only wish there had been more of

them. But they all breathe the national spirit. Gems from Bryant and Longfellow, the war lyrics of Whittier, the fine wit of Holmes, and from the pens of poets, as yet not much known, many flowers of song which grew on the red battle-fields, or sprang fresh from the green graves of the patriotic soldiers of the Republic.

Of the author's Elocutionary Treatise, we have this to say, after careful reading: we wish it could be read by every teacher in the country. There is very much loose and vague talk on the subject of Elocution among teachers and the public. There are not only those who are wholly indifferent to vocal culture, but who pointedly condemn all attempts to make an analysis of the true modes and methods of expressive speech. Those who have listened to the mouthing of some badly-educated actor, or been startled from their propriety by the wide departure from nature in the rendition of some favorite poem, or have had their nerves rasped and their tastes shocked by the unnatural and artificial tones of some blatant imitator of Russell or Murdoch, with just appreciation enough of the sense and sentiment, to exaggerate a passion or feeling till it loses all semblance of naturalness and all delicacy and fineness of suggestion; and who thence conclude that it is best to let the voice alone, and do nothing with it for fear they may grow into like offences against pure taste. But it will not do with Dr. Rush's scientific and exhaustive analysis of the Human Voice before us—with the practical treatises of William Russell, who has made the best statement for the general student of elocution yet published, and who is, himself, an eminent example of what refined culture of the voice and taste can do for a man—with the *results* of improvement of voice and correction of taste in the many who have taken instruction of Monroe, of Boston, or Kidd, of Cincinnati,—we say it will simply not *do* at all, to condemn elocution and elocutionists, as it is now quite the fashion to do, by those whose own voices would condemn them should they attempt to *read* what they have so glibly written. The simple *truth* is, that the rule (the only one apt to be quoted by those who condemn analysis and rules founded upon analysis) "*Read naturally,*" or "*Have something to say, then say it,*" is in their mouths, simple empiricism and quackery! "Young gentlemen," we remember to have heard the younger Silliman, of Yale

College say to his class in Chemistry, "Young gentlemen the eminent chemists seem to have employed this term in order *to conceal their ignorance of Nature's true methods!*" So with the wisdom of these Solons. How easy it is for the Bunsbys who will not search for truth, to settle all with a wise look, a sounding phrase, or a traditional saw!

Mr. Philbrick takes the middle course, in which there is safety, between what is sometimes styled the "natural" and the "artificial" school of elocution. He says (see Introductory Remarks):

"The true course seems to me to lie midway between these extremes. While it is useless to attempt to reduce to exact system all the modifications of voice to be employed in the delivery of both plain and rhetorical language, still there are many important elocutionary rules and principles which are eminently useful for the guidance of the student."

A little further on, he thus speaks of the admirable system of Prof. Mark Bailey, the eminent professor of Elocution in Yale College:

"Avoiding alike the ultra 'artificial' system of Walker and the ultra 'natural' system of Whately, he combines in his instruction the excellencies of both, without their faults. He is both philosophical in his theory and practical in its application. He insists on analysis, but his analysis is at once simple and comprehensive."

We are glad to read Mr. Philbrick's emphatic indorsement of the value of vocal gymnastics as a means of health. He says:

"Few are aware how much may be effected by vocal gymnastics, judiciously practiced, in those constitutions where the narrow chest indicates pulmonary disease. In all such cases, regularly repeated deep inspirations are of the highest value."

The city of Boston has shown her faith in this view of her able Superintendent of Schools, by securing the services of Prof. Lewis B. Monroe, a gentleman of fine culture as a theoretical and practical elocutionist, to teach vocal gymnastics in her Public Schools. Of all the Boston "Notions," this seems to us the wisest and best. And we are told that Mr. Monroe's teaching is already manifestly and widely felt in the improved health and consequent improved elocution of those in his charge.

Dr. Rush once said to one who complained of the difficulties of his system of elocution: "I have drawn my history of the voice

altogether from *observation by the ear and experiment with the tongue*”—and this we believe to be the tendency of those teachers of vocal culture who have originality and breadth enough to make patient and independent investigations.

In conclusion, let us recommend this volume to the attention of the teachers of the country. By all means, cultivate in your pupils a love and taste for these gems of thought and right sentiment. Do not fear that your pupils will speak too much or too often. Lord Brougham said to a young barrister, anxious for advice, “Speak whatever, whenever, and wherever you can, so you do not offend propriety; for *facility*, if not success, will come with practice, and facility is a success in itself.” M. T. B.

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## WHAT SHALL WE TEACH?

BY E. L. B.

I had on my blackboard a crayon sketch of a cross, surmounted by a crown, and partly enveloped with clouds. One of my neighbors happening to see it, exclaimed at my want of judgment in matters appertaining to school-rooms: “Just rub that out, and put on there the geological formation of the earth. I do n’t know as *you can*, but some people could—and the children could learn something from it. It would do them some good. But what can they learn from that thing you have got there?”

Most, I believe, really think the highest good in the school-room consists in the greatest percentage of positive book-knowledge which can be “stuffed” into a child. “He do n’t know much about books,” said a friend to me, in speaking of another, “but he knows a great deal about men, and the world in which men live.” Good books are delightful things, and as a general thing, men and women who read books are far more delightful companions than those who do not; but “rid me and deliver me” from the companionship of those who know nothing, or next to nothing, except what they have *read* or learned from books.

Are we not too closely confined in the school-room to our books? When I begin to remember the limitless or almost limitless opportunities which offer themselves day by day, and hour by hour, for directing the minds of the boys and girls around us toward high purposes, toward noble thoughts, toward good deeds, I can only exclaim, "Who is sufficient for these things?"

Let me not be supposed to underrate the value of *exact* critical information. It is very well, and in some cases may be extremely useful, to know the names of the counties of your own State in alphabetical order; but if the choice lies between learning this list and the *ten commandments*, then by all means, I suppose, the Decalogue should have the preference. As if it *could*, by any possibility, be better for a child to know where the Euphrates river rises, than for him to know that truth, sobriety, and love, will make for him a garden of Eden more beautiful than that which once lay upon the banks of that ancient river. *True*, if I am hired to teach arithmetic, I must not devote my time to moral essays, or even to reading Christ's Sermon on the Mount; but if I have an immortal soul to feed, I must see that its nourishment is indeed meat and drink.

The souls of children hunger and thirst for what is beautiful and good. "I say unto you that *their* angels do *always* behold the face of my Father which is in Heaven." Children do not learn evil far more easily than good. Offer to them the pure cup of innocence and the foul cup of wrong, and the chances being equal for an unbiased choice, they will infallibly choose the unpolluted. A good impression is made by the lightest touch. Lay your hand never so softly upon the conscience of a little child, and you have left a mark there which will brighten with the spotless flash of beauty, or the brassy glitter of evil, as years are added to the little one's life. Let us be careful to sow our seed deftly, for it will spring up and bear fruit—"it may chance of wheat."

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THE laws of God must be instilled into the mind as the rule of right, and a reverence for divine things and the Supreme Being must be breathed by the conscientious teacher into the heart as the rule of duty.—*Huntington*.



## ON REFORMS.

BY S. A. N.

The public mind is eminently conservative. A custom once established continues by virtue of its own inertia, and is accepted by the majority of men as something good in itself, without question of its origin or usefulness. At the time of its adoption, it may have been sanctioned on account of its supposed or actual merits; or reluctantly allowed for want of something better; or it may have been a recognized evil forced upon mankind by arbitrary legislation; or it may not be possible to specify the time and circumstances of its genesis, because it grew with the growth of a rude and ignorant people. In either case, it may have outlived any usefulness it once had; or its inherent evils may have become more glaringly manifest, and their continuance more grievous; or it may have failed to supply the needs of a larger growth and a wider knowledge. In spite of all these considerations, if it wears the ærugo of past ages, it is hal- lowed by the authority of our fathers, and commands almost universal acqui- escence. He who ventures to doubt its usefulness, or to suggest that there are other and better methods, is at once stigmatized as a Radical—a monster whose only offspring are fire-breathing Chimeras.

This almost omnipotent force of custom has long been acknowledged in theory, and sincerely bewailed by thinking men, even when acting in obedience to its laws. *Video meliora proboque, deteriora sequor*. Every page of his- tory bears ample testimony to its power. If, by a successful revolution, one custom is dethroned, it is only to give place to another equally arbitrary, and perhaps no better or even worse than its predecessor. Of course, no one pre- sumes to say that some, perhaps the majority, of the existing customs are not the best possible; but whether good or bad their sway is alike powerful.

All that has been said of customs applies equally well to the accepted opin- ions and beliefs of men. The son generally follows the political prejudices of his father, and accepts the religious dogmas of his mother, without much inves- tigation into the soundness of either. It is not seldom that the Talmud has greater weight than the Pentateuch; that the tradition of the Fathers is more revered than the inspiration of the Gospel. The astronomical theory of Pythagoras was displaced by that of Ptolemy which is far worse, and whose ad- herents denounced as heretics those who held with Copernicus a far better theory.

Some existing practices would be ludicrous, if they were not attended with serious consequences. The Alchemist held that lunacy was caused by the moon, *i. e.* Luna, and believed that silver was peculiarly affected by it; he then reasoned that epilepsy was a species of insanity, and homeopathically adminis- tered nitrate of silver or lunar caustic for its cure. Is it surprising that its use has continued to this day? If our knowledge were sufficient, we should doubt- less find countless examples as absurd as this. Alexander was censured be- cause he did not fight his soldiers like Leonidas, but the Macedonian phalanx, once established, continued till Pyrrhus met the Roman legion. Frederick of Prussia was a mere blockhead, who did not know when the art of war declared

him beaten. Napoleon the Great was another ignoramus, because he did not fight like Frederick; and some of our recent victories have been preposterously impossible, because Grant and Sherman did not sufficiently reverence the Napoleonic tactics. But then these men were radicals in their profession, and richly deserved censure. These examples of successful innovators serve to show how hard it is to change,—not that one method of fighting is better or worse than another. If Alexander, not Pyrrhus, had fought Fabricius; if Napoleon had met Frederick, and not the Archduke; if equals had been pitted in conflict; if — let us not draw conclusions where such eminent Doctors disagree, but hold with good Touchstone there is “much virtue in it.”

Without doubt every profession is more or less cumbered with the weight of “authority,” by the tenacity of old and effete ideas, by the power of custom; let us see how it is with the profession of teaching. If we follow the historical development of the sciences and of the art of teaching, we may, perhaps, find that some of our notions are without foundation; that some of our most cherished opinions are merely hereditary dogmas, the outgrowth of old necessities, but now no longer necessary; that some of our methods are unworthy the name; that without reason and without excuse we are following in the curriculum of the ancients, and are heedless whether it is desirable to adopt for ourselves the goal they established, and, covered with Olympic dust, delighted to pass.

The name given to the first places of instruction in the liberal arts well indicates their character. They were schools—that is, places where men of *leisure* met to talk over their growing theories; and this, as the dialogues of Socrates sufficiently prove, often without any established order, but directed by the eldest or wisest of the junto. In this way men gathered about Pythagoras, or about Plato, or other sages renowned in their time. When, long years afterward, their studies were systematized, it was found they could be conveniently grouped in two classes: the Trivium—grammar, logic and rhetoric; and the Quadrivium—arithmetic, geometry, music and astronomy. These were sciences which men could pursue independent of collateral aid derived from inventions, or from the general culture of the masses; but, as might be expected, the studies of the Trivium engrossed the attention of most philosophers. Generally each teacher confined himself to one branch of study; thus Cicero at various times had six different teachers, if not more. For our present purpose, it will suffice to consider all the Grecian philosophers in one group, as being essentially distinct from those that followed. If any one will carefully study the methods pursued by these teachers and sages, he can not fail to perceive many things worthy of attention and of imitation. Among these noteworthy points are first: The disciples were not slavish copyists of their masters. Aristotle was the favorite pupil of Plato, but the lyceum he founded differed widely from the academy. That the Greek was free in thought is manifest from the numerous sects that arose among their philosophers. Second: The teachers limited their instructions only by their knowledge, giving preference, as would be natural, to favorite branches—some to mathematics, as Euclid; some to metaphysics, as Plato. It is idle to suppose that such men as Aristotle and Democritus taught nothing but dialectics, when their writings cover the whole ground of the sciences.

Third: The leaders of the schools were men of indomitable energy and of untiring industry in the acquisition of knowledge. All of them were profound thinkers. Most of them had, at some period of their lives, studied in Egypt. Some traveled to India, and, like Ulysses,

Roaming with a hungry heart,  
Much had they seen and known: cities of men,  
And manners, climates, councils, governments.

Fourth: These men were conservators only of good, and Radicals in all else. They acknowledged no crystalline methods of thought, and, without banners emblazoned with idle devices of Progress and Reform, steadily progressed where their light led them, and unflinchingly wrought reform where reform was possible. They sought the good in every direction, and adopted without scruple every hint that promised well. Fifth: Schools, as we now use the word, did not exist. There were places where Grecian Squeers flogged unruly boys over their waxen tablets, and where the boys converted their styles into daggers; but the school was something beyond an abecedarium—it was a gathering of *men* bound to no course of study, restricted to no allotted time, governed by no puerile legislation, but earnest in the pursuit of knowledge. Much more might be written in praise of these early teachers, who were in no sense of the word pedagogues, but enough has been said to contrast their work with that of their successors. One fault remains to be noticed: There were fifth-rate men then as now, who took all things on the *ipse dixit* of their masters. The reverence for authority was in full force among the followers of Pythagoras, but never to so great a degree in the academy nor among the Peripatetics; yet it must be remarked that the deference paid was purely voluntary, such as men instinctively yield to great minds, and not enforced by edicts fulminating horrid penalties against disbelievers. It was reserved for a later day to install authority as supreme, and uphold it if not always by bulls of excommunication and charges of heresy, yet by the unanimous suffrage of a clique who held and still hold that knowledge will die with them; that they only are competent to judge of the right way of training, and who are, unfortunately, sufficiently numerous and powerful to make their opinions law to the majority.

When Grecian learning declined, a few Roman imitators fell into Grecian methods, but achieved little that was new or valuable. The Fathers of the Christian Church, full of their great mission, neglected the study of the heathen philosophers to dispute over Arianism, Pelagianism, and other heresies, or to quarrel about precedence, until finally learning so much declined that even Bishops could not sign their own names. Then came a night of utter blackness, and when the dawn appeared it glimmered but faintly on a new world. All the learning of the middle ages was in the monasteries. The monks busied themselves for awhile with the legends of the saints, but when the Crusades brought new life to Europe, it reanimated even the dry bones of the cloisters. Through the medium of a Latin translation, with notes by an Arabian philosopher, they became acquainted with Aristotle, and were developed into schoolmen. Universities were founded for monks and clerks, but their Doctors, instead of widening the range of study, enclosed it in narrower bounds. Out of

the wealth of Aristotle, they were content with mere dialectics, and pursued the study of logic into quiddities unworthy of notice. The Crusades brought them the Arabic notation and the wonderful generalizations of algebra, but their scholastic philosophy absorbed every thing in its insatiable maw. Some studied geometry, but few farther than the *pons asinorum*, the fifth proposition of the first book of Euclid. The Crusades also were the means of introducing alchemy, astrology, and much that was new in physics; but, as he who sought to become an adept in these was branded as a necromancer and suspected of dealings with the devil, the study of these sciences was pursued only by impudent impostors who practiced on the credulity of the ignorant to forward their own selfish aims. Latin was studied because that was the means of communication between foreigners as French is now, or as Greek was in the days of Cicero—and because the homilies of the church were in that tongue, and not, let it be noted, because there was any mental discipline in that study, any more than in Arabic or Sanscrit. Greek was almost unknown, but in the 14th century was introduced in one or two universities by a papal edict, through the advice of one of these necromancing astrologers, although strenuously opposed by the faculty. Here began the rule of authority, so far as regards the liberal branches of study. The monks at first opposed every thing, but when Thomas Aquinas decided that there was merit in Aristotle as well as in Augustine, they found that Aristotle was the only thing necessary. They did not so much seek to develop truth under logical forms, as to bring the fanciful deductions from their own definitions into harmony with logical figures. Suppose now we stop for a moment to inquire how far these men are worthy of our imitation. What profit in learned discussions on the nature of angels? On the comparative excellence of the angelic intellect in its morning and evening states? What shall we say of their mathematical studies? Of their studies in natural science? Of the praise that ought to be bestowed on them for learning the only language that was used in the church, in the palace, in the legal courts, and in commerce?

It was an era for the world when men began again to study anything, and the founders of the great universities deserve the highest praise for their good intentions. Most of these universities have passed away. We read of them as thronged with students, and as favored with a legislation of their own, exempt from external interference and supreme within their college walls. Some are noted for the famous scholars that dwelt in them for a time, and quarreled with their fellows. Out of them, in their incorporate capacity, has come little that has benefited the world at large, and that little rather from their rejected sons than from the long line of presidents and professors. The universities that still remain, and whose influence is still great, pursue the same studies that were assigned by their founders with little or no variation. Logic has somewhat fallen into disrepute, but the strength that once was exercised in its subtleties, now expends its force on *alcaics* and *hexameters*, or in exhaustive disquisitions on the force of Greek particles. Oxford and Cambridge are now almost precisely what they were in the days of Henry VIII. They have the same requirements for admission, the same studies, the same requirements for graduation, save only in religious matters. One additional study, Greek, was introduced by Erasmus, a contemporary of Henry VIII. The examination which

is actually required for a degree does not vary sensibly from that required in the days of Charlemagne.\* The facilities for study actually furnished by the university professors are about the same in quality and quantity, except that lectureships on some of the natural sciences have been recently established. The universities, however, require a more thorough examination for the fellowships and for other college honors; but the preparation for these honors is made through private tutors not inaptly called coaches. The great scholars that have come from them are indebted to them rather for a place for retirement and study, for genial associates that quicken industry, than for any direct instruction.

For more than four centuries these universities have directed the studies of the civilized world. During this period the habitable portion of the earth has more than doubled; the seas are no longer the unsocial ocean of the ancient mariner, but the great highways of commerce; the shackles of the feudal system have been broken, and men breathe a new atmosphere of thought, and have bent their energies to nobler aims than were ever before possible. The invention of printing, the reformation in the church, have ushered in a revolution more important than that begun by the Crusades. It is certainly pertinent to inquire, Whether the universities have kept pace with the times? Whether the methods devised by schoolmen are likely to be suited to our day? Whether they have exhausted all the means for developing thought? Whether there are not heights to be reached never dreamed of in their philosophy? Whether the Trivium and Quadrivium include the only sciences that are worthy a place in the schools?

One discovery or new invention prepares the way for another. Often an apparently trivial experiment opens a wide field for research, and leads to momentous results. It is well to pause at this point, and refresh our memories with a few dates taken at random from the Annals of Science:

Harvey's theory of the circulation.....	1615
Leuwenhoeek completes the discovery.....	1668
The Royal Society founded.....	1672
Watt's first patent of the steam-engine.....	1769
Lavoisier's method of chemical nomenclature.....	1787
Davy's electro-chemical theory .....	1806
Smith's first geological map.....	1815
Henry's discovery of electro-magnetism.....	1837
Physical theory of heat enunciated.....	1842

These dates, although not the most striking that might have been chosen, since we have omitted the labors of Newton, Leibnitz, Gauss, Ritter, Cuvier and others, and have passed unmentioned the inventions of the spinning-loom, of gas-lighting, of steamboats and locomotives as too intensely practical, are remarkable in many respects. These and most other cardinal facts and phenomena in the inductive sciences have become known since the time when the collegiate course of train-

\* The University of Cambridge, England, examines the student for the "little go" on one Greek and one Latin author, one of the gospels in the original (each book being appointed one year in advance), on three books of Euclid, on easy algebra, arithmetic, and on Paley's Evidences of Christianity.

The final examination requisite for a degree, is on a Greek and a Latin author, the Acts of the Apostles in Greek, the history of the Reformation, and the mathematical theory of Mechanics and Hydrostatics.—*Everett's Lectures.*

ing was established by the schoolmen and their successors. Some of them mark the birth of sciences before unknown, and some the first steps toward the development of departments that have attained a magnitude truly wonderful both in theoretical value as bearing on other departments, and in practical worth as tending to elevate humanity. Further than this and above all, these sciences are not merely the outgrowth of modern civilization and its distinguishing characteristic, but have been and are the essential requisites of its growth. They came only when the world was ready to receive them. At an earlier day they would have been unwelcome and unappreciated, and must have died as untimely births. The present age, whether better or worse than the preceding ages, has been formed on other principles, and demands a different pabulum. As the Crusades, or the Tournaments, or the schoolmen, would be out of place in the activities of the 19th century, so would the philosopher and the inventor of our day be in the past. Shall we say that we have any thing in common with these by-gone ages beyond the sympathies of our common humanity and the blessed hopes of our common faith?

Now we can see the reason for the monkish course of study, except as regards their willful neglect of the pure mathematics. So long as natural science had nothing to offer beyond a few isolated and mysterious phenomena, we can not wonder that the pursuit of it was confined to an ignoble group of astrologers, alchemists and necromancers. The active minds of the middle ages found a sort of mental gymnastics in the quibbles and quirks of scholastic philosophy. No other course seemed profitable, because of the lack of materials, and the tardy growth of mechanical appliances. No other course was needed by an age vocal with the song of troubadours, and resounding with the clash of arms. But what excuse can be offered for imposing upon succeeding ages the customs of men whose opinions in all else are either contemptuously rejected as barren of good results, or despised as puerile?

The arguments which are adduced for the continuance of studies which were an absolutely necessity for the student of the 14th century, are of modern origin. The great value of philological studies as a source of mental discipline is not because the languages which furnish the material are dead, nor because the student can make little use of the learning he has acquired. So far as the wealth of their literature is concerned, nine tenths of scholars can acquire a clearer apprehension of its worth through the medium of a finished translation than through their own slovenly renderings dug out of a lexicon. It is pure nonsense, as every teacher of the classics will bear witness, to assert that even a respectable number of masters in the arts are capable of giving an accurate rendering of so easy an author as Livy. But on the supposition that all became thoroughly versed in Latin and Greek, we might question the cost of the acquisition. A college graduate is supposed to have devoted to these languages from three to six hours each day for seven years, if we include the preparatory studies. At least two-thirds of his time is allotted to these branches. The time lost on Greek is sufficient to make one conversant with French and German, and familiar with the literature of those languages. This is merely a question as to the comparative value of the study of modern languages of essential service in actual life, and of ancient tongues neglected when they cease to

oe inflicted as tasks and forgotten sooner than learned. It might be a profitable matter for competent men to investigate this point, and determine if some reform might be accomplished in this direction. It might be that the discussion would reveal that the time-honored methods of our colleges legitimately lead to pedantry, and show the insufficiency of pedantry for any thing useful.

With this question, however, we do not profess an ability to grapple. Its intricacies are declared inscrutable to ordinary mortals, and we are warned off by the shouts of the oracles—"Procul! O este procul, profani!" Nevertheless, with bated breath and reverent deference, let us inquire if other pursuits are not worthy a decent place in collegiate studies.

If we consider the demands made by the present age, which will not be silenced by any reverence for the past, we shall see that this question can not long be ignored. The universities of Germany have established schools for special pursuits in which any science can be thoroughly studied, but they require *pro forma* a certain amount of Latin, which may be "done" by proxy. Regarded only in the light of mental discipline, the sciences of geology, chemistry, physics and natural history are surely no mean nor unimportant studies. The generalizations of the natural sciences require, to say the least, as comprehensive an intellect, as thorough acquaintance with detail, as any question in philology, or, though the assertion smacks of temerity, even in metaphysics. But when the question is brought to the test of capacity for supplying actual needs, it assumes a different aspect on which we do not need to dwell. Even the phrase "practical value," which has been so often scouted at, derives some force when graduates of Eton college have been found who were ignorant of the multiplication table. Of mathematics and of history we have said little, because their value is generally recognized, although little enough is accomplished in either study. To all intents and purposes, our colleges are merely the higher grades of classical academies, as is evinced by the course of study pursued in them. Generally the natural sciences are crowded into the senior year, or shuffled out of the way as extras. The course of study pursued in our academies and high schools is regulated by the requirements of the colleges. Till these are changed we must go on with the declensions and conjugations *ad nauseam*. These will not be changed until the demand is made at their doors for another method.

Is a reform possible? Is a revolution necessary? No spirit of Vandalism should induce us to deny the good we now have, and rush into the opposite extreme: but the time has come for inquiry, for deliberation, for decision. So far as the physical sciences are concerned, we have seen that they are of late development,—that their growth during the past century has been wonderful. At the time of the foundation of the Royal Society, they served only as curious amusements for the leisure hours of a few *dilettanti*. Even at the beginning of the present century little was known of them—and that little could be ignored by educated men. Since then their claims to formal recognition have been slighted or ignored by those whose place it ought to have been to decide upon their merits. The authority of old customs still reigns paramount, but unless it can show a more valid reason for its domination than its antiquity, or that it performs a supererogatory service well, it must either be shorn of its strength or dethroned.

## Editorial Department.

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DURING our connection with the MONTHLY, we have aimed each year to publish an edition sufficiently large to supply back numbers to all subscribers who may wish their subscription to commence with the volume—January. Hitherto we have found our estimate a little low, the edition running short before the first of July. We think the supply of back numbers of the current volume now on hand will meet all demand. Subscriptions may commence with the January number until notice is given to the contrary. Members of clubs may have the same or different postoffices.

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### THE DAILY PUBLIC SCHOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

This is the title of a work recently published by J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co., Philadelphia. It is, in some respects, a remarkable production. The author starts out with the expression of a "firm belief that the confidence reposed in our present common school system, is delusive," and proceeds to give the grounds of this belief by an analysis and survey of the school systems of Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York and Massachusetts, which he regards leading States in common-school effort. In this survey he confines himself, as he tells us, almost exclusively to the provisions made for elementary instruction and the results attained.

A general synopsis or abstract of the laws of each of the States named, is given with a cursory view of "the territorial divisions; the arrangements for the institution, superintendence, instruction and discipline of the schools; the school-buildings and their sites, and the appendages of libraries, institutes, high schools, normal schools, etc." In determining the efficiency and success of the school systems of each State, the annual report of the school department for 1864 is taken as a guide, which, judging from some of the inferences of the author, is very delusive.

The Ohio school system is first examined with a view, we suppose, of proceeding from the less to the greater. We find no fault with most of the author's conclusions respecting the condition of our common schools. We are fully aware that they fall far below a proper standard. But what is the practical remedy for this state of things? How is our school system to be made more efficient and thorough? The author's answers to these inquiries are exceedingly unsatisfactory and, we may add, pernicious. He decides against nearly every agency which experience has shown to be valuable, and presents instead—practically *nothing*. He would abolish all such useless "appendages" as graded schools, high schools, normal schools and school libraries. Indeed the low condition of the elementary schools of the country, he attributes at least in part to



the influence of these agencies! The efficiency of the public school is, in his judgment, determined largely by the absence of all "appendages!" They are a prolific source of poor spelling, writing and reading, and where they have been introduced, "there are probably a hundred that can not write a letter correctly, where there were ten before." Teachers' institutes are held to be a possible good, but their value and influence are as yet not perceptible in the schools.

The argument against graded schools is a specimen of the lucid character of the writer's logic. Here it is:

"There can be no doubt that a much more systematic and thorough course of instruction may be given to 100 children by assigning to one the whole work of teaching the art of reading and spelling; to another the whole work of teaching writing; to a third the whole work of teaching geography, and so of grammar and arithmetic, instead of committing them to one teacher, and expecting him or her to instruct in all these branches. And a still farther advantage would result from their occupying separate rooms for the purpose. But the practical question is, whether the branches required by law to be taught in the public schools, can not be taught *with sufficient system and thoroughness* by competent teachers under the ordinary arrangement of classes?"

Again:

"It may be very true that it would 'be cheaper to build one house large enough to accommodate 100 pupils, and employ teachers for them when properly graded, than it is to purchase ground, erect and furnish two houses that will be convenient for fifty pupils each, with a teacher competent to teach well all the branches.' But the great end contemplated by the law is to *diffuse* a knowledge of elementary branches!"

This may be very clear and satisfactory to the writer, but we frankly confess that it passes our feeble comprehension.

On pages 94 and 95 we find "a feasible and sensible scheme" for checking "the growing evil of an endless variety and multiplicity of common school text-books." The State is to turn publisher and bookseller, to monopolize the entire business, to interdict peremptorily the use of other books, "and thus shut (?) the door against all abuses and impositions in this form!"

But we do not intend to let the excessive and often ludicrous "old fogysm," of this book blind us to its excellences. It contains an earnest plea for more efficient and thorough instruction in the "road-side schools" of the country where the great body of our youth are to be fitted for life's duties, and it certainly contains abundant evidence that these schools need better school-houses, better sites, better text-books, and better teachers. It urges, not too strongly, that the personal habits, manners and moral character of our youth should receive more attention. All this is well, and we would urge all who wish to see our schools attain this reasonable standard of excellence to disregard the author's advice to go *backwards*. Excellence will not be found in that direction.

Nor will it suffice to say that what is needed is a public sentiment that will build and furnish better school-houses,—that will demand and pay for better school instruction. How is such a public sentiment to be created? Largely through the agency of successful and skillful teachers. They must by their actual success create the very public appreciation that will reward them. What agencies can be relied upon to raise up teachers who shall be competent for this work? An answer to this inquiry will show that a public school system needs such "appendages" as teachers' institutes and normal schools.

## PROGRAMME OF DAILY SCHOOL EXERCISES.\*

What are the advantages of a programme of daily exercises, allowing a definite amount of time to each exercise? What are some of the difficulties encountered in arranging such a programme for an ungraded school? Why is it better to divide the school into three or more *grades*, and arrange the programme for each grade? What is the advantage of a study table in which the work of the pupils at their desks is marked out and directed? What is your plan of regulating the study of your pupils? How would you provide for oral instruction, slate exercises, etc., in your daily programme?—*Questions on the Theory and Practice of Teaching.*

In compliance with the request of a number of our readers, we submit what we regard a practical answer to the questions above, selected from the series officially recommended to boards of examiners.

The multiplicity of the duties which make up the day's labor of the teacher renders it necessary that these duties be reduced to as complete a system as possible. System lengthens the teacher's hours. It enables him to pass from one duty to another without unnecessary waste of time, and to give to each the relative attention which its importance demands. But there can be no system in the school-room without the proper division of the teacher's time. He must not only know the order of his duties, but also the amount of time that can be devoted to each. This will enable him to use each moment to the greatest possible advantage. But the advantages of a definite programme of school duties are not confined to the teacher. Such a programme aids the pupils in the preparation of their lessons, and promotes diligence and good order. To this end it should not only prescribe the time and order of the recitations, but it should regulate the work of the pupils at their desks. In other words, it should include a *study table* as well as an order of recitations, and the whole should present a plan of school work so simple that it may be easily carried out by the teacher.

In arranging such a programme for an ungraded school, the teacher will, however, meet with serious practical difficulties. The multiplicity of the recitations and exercises to be provided for, renders it exceedingly difficult to allow to each a definite amount of time. The sub-divisions are too small to be easily marked, even when the school is supplied with a clock. It is true that this difficulty is heightened in many schools by an unnecessary number of classes. But when the teacher has properly classified his pupils, he will still find it difficult thus to "time" his recitations.

This difficulty may be overcome, in a good degree, by dividing the school into three *grades*, and allowing a definite amount of time to the exercises and study of each grade. Grade A may include, for example, all pupils in written arithmetic or above the Fourth reader; Grade B all pupils in the Third and Fourth readers, and Grade C all pupils below the Third reader. This gives a general idea of what is meant by three grades of pupils. Each grade, may and usually will, contain two or more classes in each branch of study. This arrangement will also classify the pupils for oral instruction and general exercises—a matter of great practical importance.

\*A programme similar to the one here recommended, was published in the thirteenth volume of the MONTHLY (1864). It has received the indorsement of many practical teachers.

With a view of aiding inexperienced teachers in preparing a programme of school work upon this plan, we submit the following:

## RECITATION AND STUDY TABLE.

	GRADE A.	GRADE B.	GRADE C.
To 9:10.		Calling Roll and Devotional Exercises.	
" 9:30.	<i>Arithmetic.</i>	<i>Mental Arithmetic.</i>	Numbers.
" 9:50.	Spelling.	<i>Mental Arithmetic.</i>	Spelling.
" 10:10.	do.	Spelling.	<i>Spelling and Numbers.</i>
" 10:20.	<i>Spelling.</i>	Do.	Reading.
" 10:30.	Written Exercises.	<i>Spelling.</i>	Do.
" 10:40.		Recess for the whole School.	
" 11:00.	Geography.	Reading.	<i>Reading.</i>
" 11:20.	Do.	Reading.	Sentence-making.
" 11:30.	Do.	Sentence-making.	<i>Oral Lessons.</i>
" 12:00.	<i>Geography.</i>	(Grades B and C dismissed at 11:30.)	

## AFTERNOON.

To 1:40.		Calling Roll, etc.	
" 2:00.	<i>Reading</i>	Reading.	Printing.
" 2:20.	Written Exercises.	<i>Reading.</i>	Reading.
" 2:40.	<i>Writing.</i>	<i>Writing.</i>	Writing or Printing.
" 3:00.	Do.	Drawing.	Reading.
" 3:10.		Recess for the whole School.	
" 3:30.	English Grammar.	<i>Oral Lessons.</i>	Spelling.
" 3:45.	Do.	Spelling.	<i>Spelling.</i>
" 4:00.	Do.	<i>Spelling.</i>	Drawing.
" 4:30.	<i>English Grammar.</i>	(Grades B and C dismissed at 4:00.)	

The words in italics in the above programme indicate the order of recitations, and the words in Roman the lessons to be studied or the work to be done by the pupils at their desks. While, for example, the different classes in grade A are reciting their lessons in arithmetic, the classes in grade B are preparing their lessons in mental arithmetic, and the classes in grade C are learning to count, small numbers or to add the smaller digits by means of marks upon the slate, kernels of corn, or other objects. The number of classes in arithmetic in grade A will determine the amount of time that can be devoted to *each class*. The programme only regulates the time to be devoted to each grade. At the close of the twenty minutes, the classes in grade B are called, and the pupils in grades A and C commence preparing their spelling lessons, the latter by printing the words upon their slates.

The advantages of such a programme are evident. It divides the teacher's time into intervals of sufficient length to be easily marked by reference to a time-piece—a clock being preferable for the purpose. It affords the smaller pupils the necessary variety and change of employment, and enables the teacher to see, at a glance, that the proper duty is receiving attention. By appointing a monitor in each of the lower grades to distribute and collect the slates, the teacher may, with little trouble, examine every slate exercise of his little pupils in drawing, printing or writing, sentence-making, etc.—exercises that should receive early and constant attention.

The "oral lessons" of grades B and C may include lessons in direction, home geography, number, color, form, qualities of familiar objects, etc. The exercises in "sentence-making" should receive careful attention with a view of preparing the pupil, at an early age, to write a neat and creditable letter. The pupils in

grade A may prepare their written exercises in the forenoon and copy the same in the afternoon.

No mention is made in the table of moral lessons, physical exercises, and music. Singing may be made a part of the opening exercises of the school, forenoon and afternoon. A half hour each week may also be set apart for an additional exercise. Moral instruction may be imparted as a regular exercise once or twice a week, and also *whenever a fit opportunity occurs*. Brief physical exercises should occur at the close of each hour not broken by a recess, and one or two regular exercises each week may be provided for. The teacher's weekly programme, if not his daily, should present a complete and harmonious system of instruction and discipline.

The above programme, though more specially adapted to ungraded country schools, may be suggestive to primary teachers in towns and cities. In many of our graded schools too little attention is paid to the study of pupils—their desk or seat work. Every twenty minutes should bring a change of employment to young pupils.

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## HISTORY IN SCHOOLS.

I heard, recently, the recitations of two classes in history, taught by methods radically different.

To one class a lesson had been assigned to be learned. The recitation consisted of answers to rapidly repeated questions involving names, dates, narrative. Some answers were pertinent and correct, but, as a whole, the recitation was a failure; of which fact the teacher seemed painfully conscious. I found, by questioning, that the majority of the class had forgotten a great deal of what they had studied a few weeks before, or had formed very incorrect notions of its drift and meaning.

The other class had used the text-book as a reader. No long array of facts, names, and dates, had been required to be learned and recited *memoriter*. A paragraph was read by a pupil, and then talked about, in a familiar manner; the teacher leading and directing the conversation. If there was any thing especially interesting or important in the paragraph, it was read a second time, by another pupil, and then, with books closed, its substance was given, by two or three, in their own language. I found this class had committed a surprising amount of historical data to memory. The teacher informed me that this had been done, almost unconsciously, through constant repetition and reference during class time. I found these pupils, also, quite accurate in their judgments concerning the actors in that part of the world's drama they were reading. Much of the conversation related to men and the motives by which they are or should be governed—thus forming a habit of fair and just criticism, of far greater value than the mere memory of events.

If we define history to be "God teaching by examples," which of these two methods is the better? In answering this question we must bear it in mind that

there is a *letter* and a *spirit* of history: the letter consisting of the bare, dry details of events—the spirit, of the thoughts, the ideas, the impulses, the motives, which were the causes, the occasions of these events. One who considers the letter of more consequence than the spirit, will adopt the first method, and endeavor to cram the memories of his pupils with facts. One holding the opposite opinion will make the spirit of history the basis of all his instruction, and use facts as waymarks or tallies only. He knows that they are indispensable auxiliaries to true historical knowledge, but does not think it wise to spend all his own time as well as that of his pupils in their acquisition. The former will pore over and condense statistical tables, decorate the walls of his school-room with historical synopses and “Streams of Time,” and endeavor to obtain inspiration by perusing the Annual Register; the latter, while he will not reject any of these aids, will use them sparingly, and read Bancroft, Motley and Merivale. Which of the two feels the beating of the great heart of humanity, and sees the past moving before him, a panorama of life-like realities,—and which wanders in a valley of dry-bones, amid the silent monuments of death and desolation? There can be but one answer to this question.

The faults of the first method of instruction are the following:

1. The study is made a task. A certain number of pages must be learned and recited. The pupils learn them, if at all, from compulsion—and what they learn is not history, but its gaunt, lifeless skeleton.
2. The theory of the method is based upon the untenable hypothesis that the facts of history constitute its most important part.
3. Instead of being attracted to the study, pupils are repelled from it by the harshness and dryness of the method. When they leave school their historical reading is ended.
4. The teacher spends the time allotted to the recitation in asking questions and hearing answers, instead of clothing the skeleton of facts with nerve and muscle, and breathing into it the breath of life.

The merits of the second method are—

1. The pupils come to the class-room to read and converse, not to be quizzed. They engage in the exercise heartily and willingly—and, when their minds are excited and alert, they commit to memory as a pastime what they would have struggled long to learn as a task.
2. The teacher makes the spirit of history the basis of all his instruction. What the pupils read is a “story founded on fact,” to be talked about and remembered because they find pleasure in doing so, instead of facts woven into a dull, condensed narrative, to be conned in silence, and learned because the regulations of the school require it.
3. It enables the teacher to give effective daily moral instruction. Historical characters, their acts, their motives, their surroundings, are submitted to a rigid scrutiny—at each recitation creating some new disgust or horror for vice and crime, or love and reverence for virtue and benevolent actions.

It may be claimed by those prejudiced in favor of the first method, that moral instruction can be added to it, without altering its essential features. I admit it *can* be, but is it? As a general rule, is it not true that when the questions have been asked, and those usually the printed ones accompanying the text,

the recitation is considered finished, and the class dismissed? Teachers rarely combine the good points of one method with the faulty ones of another. A lesson assigned to be learned must be recited—otherwise the required preparation is for no practical purpose. The case is far different in a reading lesson for instruction or amusement. In that there is no tedious preparation required: there is a good opportunity afforded for oral instruction; and a teacher with any tact whatever can use it in investing really hard work with the guise and charm of play.

It may also be said that comparatively few teachers are well-posted in history, even that of their own country, and of those who are, few have the tact to teach successfully a class in this manner. I am willing to admit that one's knowledge must be thorough, even exhaustive, to become a model teacher in this branch; that he must know the difference between conversation and gossip; can drop one topic and take up another at the proper time, and in the proper manner, never confusing the minds of his pupils with a multiplicity of details—but is not all this equally true of a thorough, successful teacher of any branch of study? One who is obliged to make constant reference to his text-book, who can not correct its errors or supply its deficiencies, is not worthy the name of teacher.

History is not taught at all in most of our common schools, and in many of our higher institutions of learning. The reason given for this is, that the school programme is already too much crowded to admit of its introduction as a class study. There is a practical way of overcoming this difficulty. *Use some well-written history as a reader for advanced classes.* This can be done without increasing the amount of each day's work, and the scholars will be as much, if not more, interested in it, than in the volumes of disjointed, disconnected extracts from which their reading lessons are now selected. Faulty as it is, I feel myself much indebted to Hale's *United States*, read when I was thirteen years old, in a district school. We were not required to commit any portion of it to memory, but we did remember a great many important facts. We were never quizzed to ascertain whether we understood or remembered what we read—for our teacher knew as little about history as we—but the most interesting incidents formed the staple of many an evening's chat, and were woven into the fabric of many a dream of what might be in the golden-hued future.

An elocutionist, in making up a programme for an "entertainment," confines himself principally to such selections as are *not* read in the family circle, except occasionally. Those who listen to him go away and complain, very justly, too, of the poor reading, so common in our schools. The declamation which makes the hour pass off so pleasantly, is by no means so desirable an accomplishment as many suppose. Few indeed even find occasion to read in any other than a straight-forward manner.

In fact, ability to read plain narrative in an attractive, forcible style, is more to be coveted than all the declamation taught and practiced by the entire race of so-called elocutionists. Can *that* be acquired by reading, exclusively, in school, the short selections found in our best, most popular advanced readers? I think not. Attempts have been made to use natural history for this purpose—but in doing so we trespass on another educational principle. The sciences constitu-

ting natural history contain material which must be carefully studied, much of it committed to memory, and then recited. They are disciplinary forces of the memory, the understanding, the reason—eminently so, when thoroughly taught. They must be taught; merely reading them will not do. History, however, occupies a sort of middle ground between pure literature and the sciences. No harm can be done by reading it as a daily exercise, even “without note or comment;” much evil may result from attempting to teach it in a repulsive, unphilosophical manner.

To those who may think my views on elocution not orthodox, I submit the following extract from a review of a recent work on that subject in the *Round Table*:

“The majority of the pupils in our schools will never need to read to a larger audience than the family circle, and there any of these tricks of voice or manner would be abominable. As for the others, the worst thing we can do with them is to make them declaimers. The country is already overrun with men who delight in the sound of their own voices. The thing to be done is to give to the young thoughts, ideas, and to make them in earnest about these. Then if they have a little simple training in the management of the voice, we need not fear that they will fail in the expression of their ideas. Men who are endowed by nature with a good voice, and who really have some thoughts which ought to be uttered, will find a way to make them heard, and they will not need an elocutionist to secure attention to what they have to say. Earnestness gives us action, and is a vital power. Declamation is mere acting, and is weak and worse than useless.”

T. W. H.

### TEACHERS' WAGES.

The following table from the late report of the Commissioner of Common Schools, gives the current expenses of the public schools of Ohio during the five years ending August 31, 1865:

	1860-1.	1861-2.	1862-3.	1863-4.	1864-5.
Amount paid teachers .....	\$2,073,803	\$1,900,878	1,880,868	\$2,087,879	\$2,501,510
For fuel and other contingent expenses .....	254,178	264,296	263,768	333,060	430,935
Total current expenses.....	\$2,327,981	\$2,165,174	\$2,144,636	\$2,420,939	\$2,932,445

By comparing the amount paid teachers in 1864-5—the year of *maximum* war prices—with the amount paid in 1860-1, it will be seen that the increase is only about *twenty* per cent, while the increase in the cost of fuel and other contingent expenses is about *seventy* per cent. The average increase in the current expense of the schools is only about *twenty-five* per cent.

By comparing the average *monthly* wages of teachers we find, it is true, a more favorable increase—the advance in the wages of male teachers being nearly thirty per cent. and that of female teachers about thirty-four per cent. The apparent discrepancy between the percentages of increase in the whole amount paid teachers and their average wages per month, is due to the very large increase in the number of female teachers employed in the schools—an increase of over *thirty* per cent. since 1861.

The fact that the advance in the wages of female teachers is greater than the advance in the wages of male teachers, is significant. There is unquestionably a growing demand for well-qualified female teachers. A more liberal and equitable compensation will soon make it an object for women to prepare themselves thoroughly for the business of teaching.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**SANDUSKY COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The teachers of Sandusky county held their first Institute at Fremont during the week commencing March 26. The attendance was large—one hundred and twenty teachers, or more than half of the teachers of the county, being present. They were all, ladies and gentlemen, gratuitously entertained by the hospitable citizens of Fremont who manifested a most commendable interest in the exercises. The Institute was under the supervision of E. E. WHITE, who gave a course of instruction in the theory and practice of teaching, including school organization and government, methods of primary instruction in the several branches, methods of conducting recitations, etc. He also gave a public address each evening. Mr. ROSS gave instruction in elocution; Mr. TWISS in English grammar; and Mr. CHILDS in penmanship. Rev. E. BUSHNELL, president of the Institute, also assisted. The evening exercises were held in Birchard's Hall, the gratuitous use of which was tendered by the generous proprietor. On Thursday evening a general educational meeting was held. Brief and excellent addresses were delivered by Mayor EVERETT, who presided, Rev. E. BUSHNELL, Dr. STILWELL, Mr. ROSS, and others. A resolution was adopted inviting the Institute to hold its next session at Fremont. The meeting was large and enthusiastic.

The success of the Institute was largely due to the County Examiners, who gave it a hearty and active support. It is believed that its influence will be felt in every school in the county. A large list of subscribers for the MONTHLY was secured.

**RICHLAND COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The annual session of this Institute was held at Shelby during the week commencing April 2. About seventy teachers were in attendance. The lady teachers were hospitably entertained by the citizens of the place. The instructors and public lecturers were Col. DE WOLF, of Toledo, and E. E. WHITE, of Columbus. Col. DE WOLF presented excellent methods of teaching reading, arithmetic and English grammar. His admirable drills in reading were designed to give teachers a correct idea of the manner in which the subject should be taught in our schools. It has long been a query with us whether the course of instruction in elocution usually presented in institutes by professional elocutionists, is of much value. We decidedly prefer model class drills in reading to any skeleton of the subject as a science.

The evening exercises were well attended by the citizens. We were glad to see the members of the Board of Education present, and especially to learn that the erection of a new school building is agitated. A fine, commodious school building would greatly add to the prosperity and growth of the place.

**MEDINA COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The teachers of Medina county have gone up to the head! The feat was done in this wise: The County Examiners proffered to the teachers a substantial addition to their stock of professional knowledge; the citizens of the county-seat threw open their houses; and the teachers came up and filled them. We arrived about two o'clock Monday afternoon (April 9th), and found the court-house swarming with "fair women and brave men." Soon the court-house bell was rung; Judge HUMPHREVILLE called to the chair; Mr. McDOWELL elected secretary; a constitution reported and adopted; permanent officers elected; and the County Teachers' Association, which, before the week closed, numbered over two hundred members, (about two-thirds of the teachers of the county), was organized. We were made master of ceremonies, with authority to conscript any additional force we might need.



We called into the service WM. P. CLARK, of Medina, whom we knew to be a host in himself. He gave an excellent course of instruction in geography, arithmetic and English grammar.

Public addresses were given each evening—Wednesday evening excepted. The audiences soon grew beyond the capacity of the large court-room, and the largest church in town was procured and filled. On Friday evening Judge HUMPHREYVILLE gave a clear exposition of the legal rights and duties of teachers.

The complete success of this Institute renders a few facts connected with its organization important. The County Examiners took hold of the enterprise; they issued a circular conveying a general idea of what would be attempted in the Institute; they appointed a live teacher in each township to place these circulars in the hands of teachers and solicit their attendance. A similar course was taken by the examiners of Sandusky county. We commend the plan to other examiners and institute committees.

**LORAIN COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The annual session of this long-established Teachers' Institute was held at Elyria during the week commencing April 2. About seventy teachers were in attendance. The instructors were Dr. STERLING, of Cleveland, Prof. SCHUYLER, of Berea, and Mr. HARTZUFER, of Elyria. We have not received a full report of the proceedings.

**TUSCARAWAS COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—A Teachers' Institute was held at New Philadelphia during the week commencing April 2. Mr. HARVEY, of Painesville, was the principal instructor. We learn that there was a small attendance.

**WARREN COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.**—A monthly meeting of this Association was held at Lebanon on the 24th of March. Miss JURA read an essay on "The Best Method of Teaching Orthography," which elicited a lively and profitable discussion. Miss BUNTING read an excellent essay on "The Relation of the Parent to the School," which has been published in the *Western Star*. Mr. J. C. KINNEY gave a lecture on elocution, illustrating his views by select readings. In the afternoon Hon. E. D. MANSFIELD delivered an able, but lengthy address. By vote of the Association it was decided to hold a two-days' session at Lebanon on the third Friday and Saturday in May. The next monthly meeting was appointed to be held at Mason on the 4th Saturday in April. The teachers of Warren county are in earnest.

**SANDUSKY.**—A late issue of the *Sandusky Register* contains an address to the teachers and citizens of that city by M. F. COWDERY, Esq., Sup't of the Public Schools. The leading thought of the address is, that "the right formation of character should be the chief end of school instruction for a child." This view of school instruction and the practical duties of teachers in carrying it out are clearly and ably set forth. We regret that a want of space forbids our making liberal extracts. We hope Mr. COWDERY may favor the readers of the MONTHLY with a few of his many excellent ideas upon this subject.

**SCHOOL LAW AMENDED.**—A law has been passed amending section twenty-two of the general school law, and authorizing township boards of education to levy a school tax of not exceeding five mills, viz: two mills for school-house purposes, and three mills for the payment of teachers and other contingent school expenses. This will greatly facilitate the erection of school-houses, and will relieve many township boards from great embarrassment. The former authorized levy of three mills for all school purposes, was not sufficient in the more sparsely settled townships, and the securing of an additional school-house tax by a popular vote, was found impossible, since but

a few of the voters of a township reside in the sub-district in which the school-house is to be erected.

This change in the school law is the only one made by the General Assembly at its recent session.

**SALARIES OF TOLEDO TEACHERS.**—The salaries now paid the teachers of the Public Schools of Toledo, O., are as follows: Superintendent, \$2,000; Principal High School, \$1,700, First Assistant (female), \$700, Second Assistant (female), \$650; Principal of Grammar School, \$1,200, First Assistant (female), \$600; Principal Intermediate School, \$1,200, (new Intermediate, \$1,000,) five Assistants (female), \$550 each; Principal Secondary School, \$1,000; French and German Teacher (male), \$1,000; six female Principals of Ward Schools, \$525; fifteen female Teachers, \$500; six, \$450 (average.) Toledo has always manifested a liberal spirit in the support of her Public Schools, and, as a consequence, they are in excellent condition.

**ARTICLES IN THIS NUMBER.**—If we are a judge in such matters, the contributed articles in this number are both readable and instructive. Those who have read, thus far, the serial "Talks after Working Hours," do not need to be told that the "Ex-Mechanic" is a "master-builder" of sentences. "How Stands the Account?" ought to be read by the teacher who put down the "Life of General Jackson" as the name of the educational work he had read, and the "New York Ledger" as the educational periodical he was taking! Who doubts that such a teacher ought to have higher wages? "Vocal Culture in our Public Schools" has much savory meat in a book-notice skeleton. Its form suggested small type, but its substance and spirit won for it a place among the leading articles. "What Shall We Teach" is a capital thing. If Miss B. is a fair specimen of Friend Smyth's lady teachers, we know where to look for lady contributors—by far too scarce an article. Mr. Norton's article "On Reforms" will be carefully read—as long as it is—by all who have given any thought to the subject of education. It treats upon a subject that is attracting wide and earnest attention. We leave the editorial department to speak for itself.—The friends of the MONTHLY may be pleased to learn that new subscribers are coming in encouragingly. Several hundred names were added to our subscription list during the month of April. And still there is room.

**SALEM.**—We notice a weekly statement of the attendance of the Public Schools in the successive numbers of the *Republican*. The average per cent. for all the schools reaches a high figure, indicating what the editor affirms, that the schools are in a most prosperous condition. The debt incurred in the erection of the fine school building which adorns the town, has all been paid.

**ASHLAND.**—The Union Schools are in motion again with a new corps of teachers. J. HARPER GRAHAM is the Superintendent—an energetic, whole-souled man, and a capital teacher. His appointment by the Board looks like business.

**OHIO UNIVERSITY.**—We learn from the *Athens Messenger* that the number of students in attendance this term is 171—the largest attendance that the institution has ever had. The army is largely represented.

MESES T. BROWN, Esq., is giving a course of lessons and lectures on Vocal Culture in the Public Schools of Louisville, Ky. The Board of Education made a generous appropriation for the purpose.

W. C. CATLIN, formerly Superintendent of the schools of Elyria, O., is, as we learn from the *Michigan Teacher*, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Port Huron, Mich.

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PRACTICAL THOUGHTS FOR THE TEACHER.—III.

V BY REV. SAMUEL FINDLEY.

MEANS OF EXCITING AN INTEREST IN STUDY.

"Give us light amid our darkness;  
Let us know the good from ill;  
Hate us not for all our blindness;  
Love us, lead us, show us kindness—  
You can make us what you will!

"We are willing, we are ready;  
We would learn, if you would teach;  
We have hearts that yearn toward duty;  
We have minds alive to beauty;  
Souls that any heights can reach!"

[*Ind. School Journal.*]

As clay in the hands of the potter, so is the mind of the pupil in the hands of the teacher; and the silent, expectant children, as they look toward their instructor in the school-room, seem to say, "You can make us what you will." The teacher is the centre around which all the intellectual and moral interests of the pupil revolve. His is the controlling mind—the inspiring mind—the moulding mind. He must *feel* this fact, and move among his pupils as a living, energizing spirit. If he would awaken, in the undeveloped minds about him, an interest in study, he must himself be inflamed with intensest enthusiasm in the pursuit of

knowledge. Enthusiasm is a living, burning ardor, which warms into life and activity all the powers of thought, and, as a live coal when brought into contact with the cold, dead cinders, imparts its heat and glowing properties to them, so enthusiasm in the teacher kindles in the soul of the pupil an ardent zeal for knowledge.

Minds there are which need not such a stimulus—in which the passing breeze seems to fan into untiring activity energies of thought, apparently slumbering only until the time of their awaking arrives. Franklin needed no teacher to arouse to activity that powerful genius which guided him so successfully through the hitherto untraversed fields of science. Edmund Stowe only needed “to know the twenty-four letters of the alphabet,” in order to learn everything. The silent rock, torn from its bed in the quarry, touched the coiled spring of inquiry in the mind of Hugh Miller, and he perused the history of the world there recorded with an ardor which literally consumed him.

But this great man was not wholly free from obligation to his early teachers, for the task and zeal with which he devoted himself to the pursuit of his favorite science. His Uncle Alexander was an enthusiastic admirer and student of nature—knowing more of living nature than many professors of Natural History; and from him he received his first lessons on rocks, tides, trees, ferns, shell-fish, and insects. While within the school-room he received no impulse to thought and acquired no fondness for his studies, the lessons he received out of school—because they were taught by a teacher awake to his theme and intensely interested in his intellectual pursuits—left their impress upon his mind, and kindled within him that ardor which we see glowing in every page he has written, and which distinguished him in all his researches, whether in Geology or Theology.

In the example just referred to, we have a forceful illustration of the truth of my remark, that enthusiasm in the teacher is necessary to the enkindling of enthusiasm in the pupil. Here is the starting point. When the teacher possesses this qualification for his profession, there will not be wanting to him means and expedients to awake a correspondent ardor in the mind of the pupil. Indeed, the brightness of the teacher's eye, as it sparkles with gems of living thought, clearly and interestingly expressed, will rivet the pupil's attention, and make him long to be the rich pos-

essor of such intellectual treasures. There is an animation in the manner and eloquence in the expression of the teacher who is inspired with his theme, which can not fail to attract the pupil to him, and to awaken all the dormant energies of his intellectual being. While, on the other hand, the sluggish, uninterested schoolmaster, who is not familiar with the branches he professes to teach, and who sees no excellency or worth in scientific truth, and no advantage in knowledge, will signally fail in awakening thought in others, and in developing mind. To such persons I can only say, the means I would suggest for exciting an interest in study are not for you to employ,—you can not appreciate them, and, therefore, have mistaken your profession.

Have you never observed what a new interest was imparted to certain subjects of inquiry by the enthusiasm of one whose whole soul was absorbed in the subject, and whose conversation abounded in interesting facts which his own researches had accumulated? Have you not often felt much of the same ardor kindling in your breast, when you thus incidentally came in contact with an earnest student of any particular branch of science? I shall never forget the influence upon my taste for geological science exerted by an ardent student of Geology, who spent a few days at the home of my youth. In his geological rambles, I accompanied him. A new field of science and of fact was spread out before me. Every rock in the vicinity was examined—its language explained, and its history told. Every ravine was explored; the outcropping strata were made to tell their order of superposition; and the pebbles and sand beneath my feet became eloquent, as they told of their watery birth and distant travel. And after his departure, I was busy with my hammer, making researches in this new world of thought and wonders; and, when in other localities, I neglected not to take a look at my new acquaintances, the rocks, and to hold such converse with them as my limited knowledge enabled me to do.

In the practical application of the truth I have endeavored to illustrate and enforce, I will suppose that the teacher has before him a class of primary scholars. It is evident, from what I have said, that his first, great duty is to awaken in their minds an interest in the studies taught in such schools. How is he to do this? By adapting himself to the mental capacity, taste, and

judgment of the child, and by gradually leading him, step by step, into the truths of science, until the mind, thus expanded and strengthened, shall be able to grasp its deeper mysteries and higher developments. .

In the imparting of the first principles of any science in an intelligible and interesting manner, lies the secret of success in teaching its deeper mysteries. And this fact is of vital importance to one who would take the child from the wild, unrestrained walks of sportive infancy, into the region of thought and study. As he has always been surrounded by the interesting in nature, so the teacher must strew his new pathway with everything attractive and profitable. *Primary books*, many of them excellent, have been prepared for the use of pupils in this department, and may be used, if used with judgment, to great advantage. Without familiar illustration, however, and much oral instruction, no book will answer the purpose. And it must be so used that no pupil will look upon his lesson as a *task*. Let the book be regarded only as an *aid*, while the teacher, all alive with interest in the subject of the lesson, imparts such a glowing attractiveness to the principles and facts of the science, that the child's inquisitiveness will be thoroughly awakened and a mental restlessness produced, which can only be allayed by a clear understanding of the subject.

To this end the teacher must qualify himself by *study*, that he may be able to adapt himself to the understanding of his scholars. There can be no greater or more fatal mistake than to suppose that because the teacher knows more than the pupil, he does not need to prepare himself *especially* for giving instruction. It is no easy task to talk to children in an interesting and profitable manner. But few excel in this art, and *too few* are—for this very reason—good teachers in the primary department. The difficulty of giving instruction properly, arises from the fact that it consists not merely in communicating the facts of science; but also in teaching the pupil how to use the facts communicated as food for thought, and how to accumulate knowledge by his own efforts—that is, simply, how to *learn*. It is not the communication of facts that develops mind; but the exercise of the mental powers of the pupil. All our teaching should therefore be subordinate

to the great end of making the pupil think and act intellectually for himself.

As the study of Geography is introduced in every primary school embracing children from seven to ten years of age, it is of the highest importance that the method adopted in teaching it be truly philosophical. Since all knowledge of the external world is communicated to the mind through the senses, and the teacher should be careful to make correct impressions with reference to the physical facts he is about to communicate, he ought to give his first lessons in Geography without a book and with globe in hand. The first question usually found in primary geographies is, "What is geography?" Before the answer is learned from the book, let the teacher instruct his class in the *meaning* of the term, and, by referring to the globe, show that the world is *round*—that its surface is divided into land and water—that the object of geography is to describe this surface—that it tells us of all that is interesting about the different divisions of the land, and the rivers, the lakes, the seas, the oceans, and other divisions of water—that it speaks of the great nations of the world, the manners and customs of the people, the cities and their commerce, and what every country produces.

By familiar illustrations, which my limits will not permit me here to introduce, the teacher can make the definitions very plain and simple to the youngest pupil. He must, however, be very careful to present but *one* thing at a time to his class. Rapid progress will never be made by committing a page or two of definitions, embracing twenty or thirty different objects, and reciting them in the hot haste of a hurried recitation. This is the *great* error so prevalent in schools, in the study of Geography, and is the chief cause of its unpopularity among the pupils. Let the first lessons embrace but *few* topics, and let each one be so clearly illustrated by the use of globes, maps, and pictorial representations of mountains, lakes, seas, gulfs, and rivers, that these ideas may be accurately and indelibly impressed on the mind. All this should be done before the pupil is permitted to use a text-book; and each recitation should be conducted in such a lively, animated manner—the teacher interspersing his instructions with interesting illustrative remarks, drawn from history and daily

occurrences—that the pupil would not consider Geography a *dry* and *useless* study.

Here let the subject rest for the present. I have been more prolix on this branch of my theme than I intended; but its importance I have not exaggerated. The enthusiastic teacher alone can inspire his pupils with enthusiasm.

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## ON THE FIGURE OF THE EARTH.

BY T. C. MENDENHALL.

I have been much interested in the article by Mr. Henkle, in the March number of the *Monthly*, on the "Shape of the Earth," and propose to add a few thoughts upon the subject which I conceive to be an important one.

A few days ago I proposed this question to one of my classes: "If the ear, the eye and the hand were to testify in a doubtful case, which would be entitled to the most credit?" After some reflection they replied that first of all they would trust the hand, after that the eye, and then the ear. This principle applied in teaching requires that we, if possible, first make our pupils *touch* or *feel* a truth; failing in this, that we aim to have them *see* it; and that we rely but little upon their simply *hearing* it. The teacher may talk learnedly of centrifugal and tangential forces, of ellipsoids of revolution, and radii of curvature, but the vacant look of his pupils is too often evidence that he has only been heard.

To tell a boy that the earth is 8000 miles in diameter, and to have him establish the fact with his own slate and pencil, are two very different things. Of course, this is impossible with primary classes; but if your pupil can solve a simple equation of the first degree, you may tell him that if he put his eye at the water level at the end of a lake three miles in length, he will be able to see only the hat of a man six feet high standing at the other end;—in two minutes he can tell you that the radius of the earth is 3926 miles. Other methods will suggest themselves to the teacher.

My principal design in the present article is to describe briefly



a series of experiments to illustrate the spheroidal form of the earth. I have thought that perhaps many of my fellow teachers were ignorant of them; and yet they are of so simple a nature as to be within the reach of every teacher in every district in the State. They were devised by M. Plateau, and originally published in the Memoirs of the Brussels Academy. An account of them has been translated and published in the Smithsonian Reports, to which I refer all who wish a description of the more perfect apparatus used in conducting the experiments, as I intend speaking only of the simplest and least expensive method. What I shall take, can be readily obtained by any one. The articles are: A clear glass bottle or jar, with a wide mouth, holding from a half pint to a pint; half a pint of alcohol; half an ounce of olive oil; a knitting-needle; a little disk of tin or iron as large as a three-cent piece; a piece of pine board; and some clear water. I have omitted from this list two important articles, because I suppose that a teacher is never without them—I mean a jack-knife and a piece of string.

Fill the bottle or jar half full of alcohol, and then add water until you obtain a mixture of the same specific gravity as the oil, so that a globule of oil will neither sink to the bottom nor rise to the surface, but remains suspended in the liquid. To accomplish this is not so difficult a task as one would at first suppose, and when done we have the interesting spectacle of a mass of oil *entirely withdrawn from the influence of gravity*, and, by consequence, obeying those laws, and only those, which originate within itself. The shape assumed is that of a perfect sphere.

Make a hole in the iron disk, and pass a knitting-needle through it, putting it at such a height that the disk will reach the centre of the sphere of oil when the end of the needle rests on a piece of wood fastened at the bottom of the glass. Enough oil should be put in to make a sphere a little greater in diameter than the iron disk. Pass the disk in the oil, so that their centres shall coincide. The upper end of the needle can be held in position by a piece of wood pressed into the mouth of the jar, with a hole in it for the needle to pass through.

With this apparatus a variety of interesting experiments can be tried, a few of which I shall mention. The effect of centrifugal force in producing an oblate spheroid becomes evident by

simply turning the wire between the fingers. A more rapid motion produces the flattening of the sphere in the form of a wheel, and a still more rapid revolution is followed by a phenomenon which is exceedingly interesting. The liquid sphere, after taking its maximum flattening, becomes hollow above and below around the axis of rotation, stretches out in a horizontal direction, and finally abandons the disk, and is transformed into a *beautiful ring*. This ring continues its revolution round the axis of rotation for a few seconds, and it will be observed that the ring is still connected with the disk by a thin film of oil, and that finally it falls back upon the disk as a sphere again. If, however, the motion of the disk be stopped suddenly, the film will be broken, and the disk may be lifted out of the ring, leaving it to "set up for itself." In this case it is curious to notice that the ring is *broken into three or more small spheres*, which continue to revolve about the original centre of motion, and it will be seen that these spheres have a motion on their axes—in the same direction in which they revolve around the centre.

That these results are analogous to the motion of the heavenly bodies will be, of course, apparent to all; and the experiments, on that account, are of great interest.

I have here mentioned the application of but one force—namely, centrifugal—to the sphere of oil; others can be employed with like interesting results. The condition of equilibrium mentioned will not last long; the oil will either rise to the surface or sink to the bottom. This is caused by evaporation or a change in the condition of the atmosphere, but can at once be remedied by the addition of a little more alcohol or water. The oil will be more distinctly visible if slightly colored. Dr. Faraday colored it with a little oxide of copper. In some experiments which I made, I used a *copper disk*, and in a short time my sphere of oil was colored green by the action of the oil upon the copper.

And, finally, the results which I have described will not be reached at the first trial, *generally*; but patience and perseverance will, without fail, produce them, and I am sure no one will regret the time spent in making the effort.

## ANOTHER ROYAL ROAD TO LEARNING.

MR. EDITOR: You have not heard from your friend and correspondent, Old Fogy, very lately. I will tell you why. A conservative is one who hates to see any thing move. An old fogy is an intensified conservative. I have been so intently occupied since my last epistle, in watching the efforts of my younger brethren—old fogies in the vealy state, as it were—to stop the onward march of the great events that have had their origin in the late civil war, that I have had no time to write to you. And so disgusted have I been with these efforts, that I have been sorely tempted to forswear my creed, and turn over to the radical side; for I had never entertained the idea until now, that to be a conservative it was necessary to repudiate all moral principles in the conduct of public affairs; to pander to the worst passions of the ignorant and vulgar; and to advocate a policy that would lead our country, after all the sacrifices and glorious heroism displayed by her children, to the verge of utter ruin.

But a truce to this. I find I am getting into deep water. Besides, what is a schoolmaster supposed to know of politics? Like McClellan's generalship (you remember him?) the subject is too deep for those not bred to the trade. Let us, then, turn to matters educational, in which an ancient pedagogue is more at home. In these there appears to be an increased activity. But is there not danger that this increased activity may lead to the introduction of pestilent new ideas into our systems of schools and methods of instruction? Such have been my fears. But I am in some degree comforted, when I call over in my mind the number of school trustees, superintendents, and teachers, who, having on the true conservative harness, are setting back in the traces with a tremendous dead weight, to prevent the wheels of our educational car from being dragged out of their accustomed ruts. Glorious specimens are they of the solid frame work on which society rests! When you come to Sleepy Hollow, I hope to have the honor and very great pleasure of introducing you to some of them. When I see new-fangled notions come bump up against their immobile inertia, and recoil as though they had struck against the adamantine walls of the universe, I rub my

hands with glee, for I know that if changes must needs come, it will not be in my day. Let progressives talk—what is argument against inertia, the great conservative principle in both the moral and physical world? I have lately seen it tried, and I reply—nothing, absolutely nothing.

I tell you I was aroused the other day to such an extent that I could scarcely restrain my ire. An old pupil of mine, who, a few years since, went out from under my advice and ferule into the world to set up for himself, thinks (the poor simpleton!) that he has discovered the true educational philosopher's stone that is to transmute every thing it touches into wisdom's golden ore. And now he writes me in the most enthusiastic way about it. I am not only put out, but I feel sorry for the young man into the bargain, for I can appreciate the keenness of the disappointment the future has in store for him. Enthusiasm is not philosophical, and, besides, the world has no room for it. John Vortex (for that is his name, and many a poor pun have his schoolmates got off on it!) has, I am grieved to say, notwithstanding the precept and example of his old master, but little reverence for the things of antiquity. He hasn't the fear of the classics even before his eyes. He hoots at the ancient philosophers, poets and historians. Says that the moderns are good enough for him. He wouldn't give Shakspeare for all the Greek and Roman poets rolled into one. That, though he is 'nt much of a philosopher, Bacon, Reid, Stewart, Hamilton, and Cousin, suit him quite as well as Plato, Socrates, and Lucretius. [A secret just here: Vortex can't read these ancient worthies except in a translation, and I suspect that is the reason of his contempt for them. I have observed that men usually set but a low estimate on knowledge which they do not themselves possess. Besides, it is not reasonable to suppose that any one can understand or enjoy the beauties of the classics in a translation as we do who are enabled to pick out the meaning of the original for ourselves, even if we are compelled to resort to a liberal use of the lexicon. They miss the rythm, the roll, the—how shall I express it?—the aroma that lie embalmed in the linguistic forms of ancient lore.] He thinks, too, that though the knowledge of other languages may be a very good thing, he will, for his own part, be able to express all the thoughts he is ever likely to possess in English. He even goes so far as to say, that

he does n't believe there is a language on the face of the earth, not even excepting the much boasted German, which some suppose to contain all the science and literature that is worth knowing any thing about, that is superior in power, flexibility and grace to his own. Altogether he is a very absurd creature. Why he even derides the science of mathematics and all its glories, and says he can't see why algebra and geometry should be pursued by pupils who can neither spell, read nor write a single paragraph of decent English. He also avers that the fact that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles, affords him no particular consolation whatever; and that he does n't care the toss of a copper whether  $x + y = b$  or  $c$ , or any other known humbug. I declare such irreverent talk comes nigh to make my hair stand on end. But that is not the worst yet. He writes me further, that he is about to set up a school, in which he intends to teach nothing but spelling, reading, composition, drawing, grammar, and English literature, with enough gymnastics thrown in to keep the body and spirits in good tone. He thinks his course of study will occupy a good many years,—at least as many as he can persuade his students to stay with him, even if that should be until they all grow gray together. He sends me his course in English literature, the works to be studied, and the methods of study he designs to pursue,—beginning with Chaucer, and traveling what he calls a glorious and pleasant road, with flowers blooming on every side, down through all the great writers and thinkers to the present time. He says he feels sure that by this close and long-continued intercourse with these men and women of noble thoughts and expression, his pupils, even if they have little or no original powers of their own, will, by such companionship, catch the infection of goodness, and rise above the mean and commonplace.

In my reply I, of course, scouted the whole plan. "Besides," said I, "how would men learn to make money—which, according to Herbert Spencer, lies at the foundation of every thing—under your absurd system of education?" I think I had him there.

But, notwithstanding my decided disapproval, Vortex is bound to give his scheme a trial. He thinks, if it does no good, like patent medicine, it will do no harm.

I have no doubt, Mr. Editor, if you, or any of your readers,

want to know any thing further of this new scheme—which is not likely to be the case—the desired information may be obtained by addressing John Vortex, Pleasant Valley, Ohio. Don't prefix professor to his name, for he hates the title like poison, and is apt to be sullen when it is applied to him.

But as he won't listen to me, and has a high regard for your opinion, perhaps a word of editorial advice might yet deter him from his mad enterprise. He wouldn't heed any thing from your associate, "J. H.," whom he looks on as being as great an old foggy as myself.

One word in conclusion, by way of defining my position: I have a friend who has misspent much precious time in reading up dry books on political questions. And the fun of it is, he doesn't seem to know that the world has moved since the time of General Jackson. Ask him what he thinks of reconstruction, and he tells you he is opposed to a protective tariff and a national bank. Put the question as to the probable result of the imbroglio between Congress and the President, and he replies that he is in favor of free trade and hard money. Where he stands in politics, I stand in education—by the old land-marks. No new-fangled ways for me.

Yours, conservatively,

OLD FOGY.

*Sleepy Hollow, May, 1866.*

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## TOWNSHIP SCHOOL SYSTEM OF PENNSYLVANIA.

BY G. D. HUNT.

During the past winter, I was engaged in teaching a rural school in Allegheny county, Pennsylvania, and thus had opportunities of learning some of the peculiarities of the Pennsylvania school system. Each township constitutes a school district, in which are established a suitable number of schools, each situated in such a place as will best accommodate the people, and all under the jurisdiction of a board of directors, six in number, who are elected by the people in the same manner as other township offi-

cers, and who hold their office three years, two of them being elected each year. It is the business of these directors to determine the number of months that school shall be kept each year in their respective townships, to levy a tax which, with the State appropriation, shall be sufficient to defray the expenses of the schools, to levy a tax to purchase sites and build school-houses, to employ teachers, visit the schools, etc.

In each county there is a County Superintendent, who is elected by the township directors, and who holds his office three years. It is his business to examine and license teachers, inspect the schools, etc. The directors usually give notice at the proper time, by advertisement, of the number of teachers wanted in their respective townships. The Superintendent holds examinations at different localities in the county; and no teachers are admitted to them except those who are applicants for schools. The directors attend these examinations, and afterward choose their teachers from those examined.

The township institutes constitute another good feature of the system. These are held on alternate Saturdays at the different schools of the township in rotation. All of the teachers are required to attend them. Attendance is reckoned the same as a day's teaching, and non-attendance forfeits a day's wages. Twenty-two days of teaching constitute a school month; and it is optional with boards of directors whether they will have the institutes or regular teaching. Hence in some townships institutes are held, and not in others. When townships are small, two or more of them can unite and hold joint institutes.

These institutes are attended with different degrees of success and profit, according to the interest that teachers, directors, and other friends of common schools, take in them. There are some persons who denounce them as useless, and as nothing but a humbug. But these are invariably persons who do nothing to keep them up and render them profitable; who think that they already know enough about teaching, and who keep aloof from all teacher's meetings, fearing that something will there be said or done by which they will lose popularity; who feel no interest in the welfare of schools beyond their own fields of labor; and who wish no fellowship with other teachers. But when the teachers come promptly to the work, and willingly do something for the benefit

of the institute, the meetings are interesting and edifying, and the influence resulting therefrom is beneficially felt in the schools.

The method of holding these institutes is this: School is held in the usual manner during the forenoon. At the close some one, previously appointed, addresses the pupils; or addresses are solicited from the teachers and other persons in attendance. In the afternoon there are class-drills, lectures, discussions, or reports on subjects pertaining to school policy. Original essays are some times presented, and select readings. I was at one place where a class inspector, who was previously appointed, examined each class after their recitations.

In the township where I was engaged, there were but six schools, and a part of the time one of these was vacant, yet we had pretty good institutes there. I attended some in other townships, and I was much pleased with what I saw in them. The directors and other citizens usually attended, and thus gave them their countenance and encouragement.

When six of the most intelligent men of the township (such the school board should be), all of the teachers, many of the parents, and other friends of education meet with one of the schools in the capacity of an institute, it produces a wonderful effect in stimulating the pupils in their studies, sustaining the teachers, and in every way advancing the improvement and prosperity of the schools. They give teachers chances to make acquaintance and to extend professional courtesy to each other. In them all become both learners and teachers. Time passed in them is not lost to any body.

I know of one township in this county where institutes of this kind have been held during the past twelve years; and better country schools than those of that township are not to be found in the western country.

If the friends of common schools in Ohio could see the working of the Township System as it is to be seen here in Pennsylvania, they would not be satisfied till they could have it established in their State. It has advantages which must be seen to be fully appreciated. When the school board is selected from the whole township, instead of having a separate board in each sub-district, men more competent and more interested in the welfare of schools



can be put into the office ; and many of the troubles that now disturb the peace of rural districts, and spoil the schools, may be obviated.

ALLEGHENY CITY, PA.

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## PENMANSHIP IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

BY L. S. THOMPSON.

Writing should certainly be taught in every primary school. We mean *taught*, not merely practiced at random as convenience or accident may suggest.

From fifteen to twenty-five minutes should be set apart each day for writing, and during the exercise every thing should be put aside, except slates and slate pencils. The pupils should be supplied with long slate pencils, or slate pencils with wooden holders.

It is not enough to place a letter before a class, and ask the pupils to imitate it. Nor, on the other hand, do we think it necessary to keep children drilling on straight lines, curved lines, elements, principles, "pot-hooks and hangers," without first showing their application in the formation of letters.

Instruction in writing should begin with the actual inspection of *letters*, and not with abstract lines, arbitrary types, or *parts* of letters. It should be remembered that children see *objects* before *lines*. It may be said that letters are arbitrary characters, which is true ; yet they have a fixed meaning by themselves, which can not be said of straight or curved lines.

Then, because we think letters are more *concrete* in character than elements or principles, we would begin at once with letters, and instead of *building them up*, we would take them apart. If the children do not understand what straight and curved lines are, and the different positions in which lines may be placed, lessons intended to develop these ideas should be given with the regular writing lessons as they may be needed. For this purpose, we know of nothing better than Lessons I, II, IV, V, VII, VIII,

and IX, on form, in Calkins' Object Lessons, pages 55, 57, 60, 63, 68, 71, and 73, respectively.

When all are ready to give attention, make the small *i* on the board, and call attention to its general form and particular parts, by some such questions as the following: What letter have I made? "The small *i*." What shape is it at the top? "It is sharp or pointed." What shape is at the bottom? "It is a little round." Where did I begin to make the small *i*? "At the bottom." Where did I stop? "At the top." (Separating it into its lines.) How many lines in the small *i*? "Three." What kind of a line is the first? "A concave curve." What kind of a line is the second? "A straight line." What kind of a line is the third? "A concave curve." Where are the first and second lines joined together? "At the top." Where are the second and third lines joined together? "At the bottom." Where should the dot be placed? "Once the height of the *i* above its top." In what direction should the dot be placed? "In the same direction as the straight line of the *i*."

The common errors in making the small *i* should then be pointed out: such as making it round at the top, pointed at the bottom, joining the first and second lines at the bottom, placing the dot too high, too low, too far to the left, or too far to the right, etc.

At this point the pupils may be permitted to take their slates and pencils, and make the small *i* for ten or fifteen minutes,—the teacher, in the mean time, passing around and making the letter on each slate, encouraging their efforts and pointing out mistakes. In subsequent lessons, the letters may be taken in the following order: *i, u, w, v, n, m, x, v, o, a, e, c, r, s, t, d, l, b, h, k, p, q, j, g, y, z, f*.

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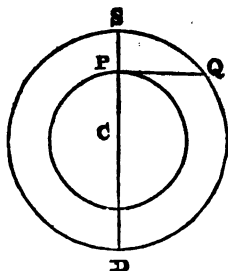
A BAD handwriting ought never to be forgiven; it is shameful indolence,—indeed, sending a badly written letter to a fellow-creature is as impudent an act as I know of.—*Niebuhr*.

## A HOLE IN THE GROUND.

BY W. D. HENKLE.

The following problem was proposed in 1781 in the *Ladies' Diary*, by Dr. Nevil Maskelyne, Astronomer Royal, under the *nom de plume Terricola* (farmer). As the problem in some form or other is still frequently discussed by teachers, I propose to solve it. Those whose stock of mathematics is too limited to enable them to understand the solution, may still be able to comprehend the results obtained.

"If a ball be let fall from the surface down a perforation made diametrically through the earth, it is required to find its velocity and time of falling to the centre, and to any given point, with other circumstances of its motion, abstracted from the effect of the earth's rotation, and on the supposition that the earth is a homogeneous sphere of 8000 miles diameter."



## SOLUTION.

Let  $x = SP$ , and put  $R = SC$ .

Since the force of gravity at  $S$  is to the force at  $P$  as  $SC$  is to  $PC$ , we have

$g : F :: R : R - x$ ,  $g$  being  $32\frac{1}{2}$  feet, the velocity generated in one second at  $S$ .

$$F = \frac{g(R - x)}{R}$$

The following differential equations are true alike for all kinds of motion, whether uniform, accelerated, or retarded:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = v, \text{ and } \frac{dv}{dt} = F, \text{ in which } v \text{ stands for velocity, } dt \text{ an element of time,}$$

and  $F$  force of gravity. Substituting the value of  $dt$  in the first for  $dt$  in the

second, we get  $F = \frac{v dv}{dx}$ , whence

$$\frac{v dv}{dx} = \frac{g(R - x)}{R}$$

which being integrated gives

$$\frac{R}{g} \cdot \frac{1}{2} v^2 = Rx - \frac{1}{2} x^2, \text{ no constant being neces-}$$

sary because  $x$  and  $v$  vanish together.

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{g}{R}} \cdot \sqrt{2Rx - x^2}. \quad (1)$$

Whence  $\frac{dx}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{g}{R}} \cdot \sqrt{2Rx - x^2}$ , which integrated (see Hann's Examples in

*Integral Calculus*, Ex. 6, p. 1) gives

$$\sqrt{\frac{x}{R}} \cdot t = \text{vers.} \frac{x}{R}$$

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{R}{x}} \cdot \text{vers.} \frac{x}{R} \quad (2)$$

Equations (1) and (2) are sufficient to determine both velocity and time.

To find the velocity of the ball when it reaches the centre, make  $x$  in (1) equal to  $R$ . This gives

$$v = \sqrt{gR} = 26,064.53 \text{ feet.}$$

To find the time occupied in reaching the centre, make  $x$  in (2) equal to  $R$ . This gives

$$t = \frac{1}{2} \pi \sqrt{\frac{R}{g}} = 21 \text{ min. } 12\frac{1}{2} \text{ sec.}$$

When  $x = 2R$ ,  $v$  becomes 0. The velocity is greatest when  $\sqrt{2Rx - x^2}$  is a *maximum*. By Differential Calculus this is found to be when  $x = R$ .  $\sqrt{2Rx - x^2} = PQ$ , because  $PQ^2 = SP \cdot PD$  (see Geometry) and  $SP = x$  and  $PD = 2R - x$ . Hence the velocity increases as  $PQ$  increases.  $PQ$  is evidently greatest when it becomes equal to radius or when  $P$  is at  $C$ , or  $x = R$ . This geometrical result agrees perfectly with that obtained by Calculus.

To find how long it would take a ball starting from  $P$  to reach the centre consider the sphere whose radius is  $PC$ .

Put  $PC = r$ , and  $g'$  for gravity at  $P$ .

Whence by (2)  $t' = \pi \sqrt{\frac{r}{g'}}$

But  $g : g' :: R : r$ , whence  $\frac{r}{g'} = \frac{R}{g}$ . Hence  $t' = t$ .

Let us now gather together the results arrived at above :

1. The ball's initial velocity is zero.
2. Its velocity is greatest when it reaches the centre.
3. Its velocity then decreases until it becomes zero on the other side of the earth
4. It will then fall back, and thus vibrate forever.
5. It will reach the centre in about 21 minutes.
6. It will reach the other side of the earth in about  $42\frac{1}{2}$  minutes.
7. It will return to its starting-point in about an hour and twenty-five minutes.
8. A ball starting at any point below the surface will be *exactly* as long in reaching the centre as if starting from the surface; hence a ball in starting one inch from the centre will be 21 minutes in reaching the centre.
9. It would pass one inch beyond the centre, and then return to the starting point, in an hour and twenty-five minutes.
10. The same would be equally true of any other distance greater than 0, and not greater than 4000 miles.

Some years ago two prominent school superintendents in this State disputed at length through a county newspaper, whether the ball let fall under the above conditions would stop at the centre, or pass on to the opposite surface and re-

turn to the starting point. I have never seen the discussion. It may be, however, that the one who was wrong argued in this manner: It can not be denied that the ball would weigh nothing at the centre. Now, momentum is equal to the weight multiplied by the velocity. Putting  $m$  for momentum,  $w$  for weight, and  $v$  for the velocity, we have  $m = wv$ . When  $w$  is nothing  $m$  is nothing, whether  $v$  is or not. But it is unreasonable to suppose that a moving body has no momentum, hence  $v$  must also be nothing. This is contrary to the conclusion arrived at in the above solution. I grant the truth of every step in this reasoning, except the assertion that  $m = wv$ . I know that careless writers on Natural Philosophy have so asserted, but a reference to the standard mathematical works on Mechanics will show that  $m = Mv$ ,  $M$  standing for the mass of the body. Hence a ball might have a great momentum at a point where it had no weight.

In the problem proposed by Dr. Maskelyne, the rotary motion of the earth is not considered. In consequence of this rotary motion, the ball would hit the east side of the perforation. If the matter in the path of the ball were to vanish, it would describe an ellipse within the earth whose major axis would be the earth's diameter. We are warranted in concluding that the ball or particle would describe an ellipse from Cor. I to Prop. X, Book I of Newton's *Principia*. Newton proves that when a body revolves in an ellipse under influence of a central (not focal) force, that this centripetal force must vary directly as the distance of the body, "and *vice versa*, if the force is as the distance, the body will move in an ellipse whose centre coincides with the centre of force, or perhaps in a circle into which the ellipse may degenerate."

The minor axis would be 672.6 miles, and the time of revolution exactly the same as that taken by the ball falling through the centre to return to the starting-point. Exactly the same time would also be required for the revolution of a ball fired from a cannon with sufficient force to take it around the earth, and cause it to be a satellite. It is also just the time that the earth should make a complete revolution on its axis, in order that bodies at the equator should lose their weight.

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## ON TEACHING GRAMMAR.

[The following excellent suggestions constitute the concluding portion of an article in the March number of the *Massachusetts Teacher*:]

But I suppose readers will say by this time: "We know all this. If you have any suggestions to offer, as to how these difficulties may be obviated, let us have them." Here, then, are my suggestions. New ideas I will not call them, for I doubt not some dissatisfied and determined teacher may have devised something similar, before now. To go back, then, to my first statement, I hold that grammar, from being the special object of school-boy hatred, may be made his delight; that from being the drudgery of the teacher's life, it may be made a recreation. How? By taking a firm stand on these principles of Pestalozzi,

the great educational law-giver: 1. "Develop the idea, then give the term." 2. "Proceed from the known to the unknown; from the particular to the general; from the concrete to the abstract; from the simple to the more difficult." 3. "First synthesis, then analysis—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature."

The truth of these principles, I believe, will be admitted by every teacher; and no one can fail to see the glaring violations of them, furnished by all the examples I have quoted. But how, in a first lesson, can these principles be carried out? I will try to exemplify.

Here are two teachers, we will suppose, one of the old school, and the other of the new. The first, standing before her class, book in hand, makes the following announcement—with an inward groan at the drudgery in prospect: "The class may take the first four remarks," or, as it is probably stated, "the coarse print on such a page." These remarks, we will assume, are the following: "A noun is a name. There are two kinds of nouns—proper and common. A proper noun is the name of a particular object, which distinguishes it from other objects of the same kind. A common noun is a name that can be applied to all objects of the same kind."

The teacher reads these remarks to the class; then, thinking some explanation necessary, continues, "Perhaps you may not understand the difference between a proper and a common noun, I will try to make it clear. Suppose I say: 'A boy in this room is out of order; do you know whom I mean?' "No." "Why not?" "Because we are all boys." "Or, in other words, the name 'boy' may be applied to each one of you. Now look at the definition, and see whether you would consider boy a proper or a common noun, if it can be applied to each of you." A correct answer being soon obtained, the teacher continues, "Suppose I say, 'Smith is out of order,' do you know then whom I mean?" "Yes." "Why?" "Because there is only one Smith in the room." "Then we may say that his name 'Smith' distinguishes that particular boy, from all the other boys, may we not? What kind of a noun is 'Smith,' then?" After a few more illustrations of this sort, comes the inevitable finale: "Study the lesson, now; be able to recite each of these definitions, promptly." We will pass over the fact, that many and many a teacher would content herself with the last remark, without any previous explanation.

It may be said that this is a good method of teaching the subject; that the distinction is made clear to the children and illustrated in such a manner that the definitions are no longer meaningless to them. It may be so; these definitions are couched in more appropriate language than some that have been quoted. But let us go back to our principle: "Develop the idea—then give the term." Is it obeyed in requiring a child to commit to memory the first remark, "A noun is a name?" Does not the term come first, and is the idea developed at all? The weakness of this method is obvious, if we take a firm stand on our great, underlying principles.

Let us now take a glance into the school-room of our second imaginary teacher. What do we see? She is standing before her class,—no book in her hand,—saying, in a cheery tone, totally free from that undertone of weariness, obvious to a quick perception in the voice of the first: "Tell me the names

of some of the objects that you see in the room,"—writing them on the board as they are given,—“the names of some of the objects you can see from the window; of some of those in your own homes.” Continuing in this way till she has made out a list of some fifteen or twenty words, she asks, at length: “What are all these words that I have written?” “Names of objects.” Now, it will be observed, the children have a clear idea of a noun; ask them for the name of an object, and they cannot be mistaken. The first requirement, then, of our principle is acted upon; an idea is developed. What remains? Give the term. This is done in a minute, and the whole thing is finished. How simple this operation is! Yet the children are kept interested throughout the lesson; even the duller are familiar with it, and the knowledge is gained without the exercise of severity on the part of the teacher, or of conscious effort on that of the pupils. In fifteen minutes the idea has become a part of themselves, and they would no more think of calling a noun a conjunction—as I have heard boys fourteen, fifteen, sixteen years of age do, repeatedly—than they would of calling white black. And this applies to the duller children in the class as well as to the quickest.

At the end of the first lesson let us see how the two classes compare. Those of the first, who have worked hard, either from choice or under compulsion, have learned the words contained in the definitions of a noun, and the two great classes of nouns, with such idea as they may have been able to extract. Two-thirds of the four-fifths of the class who learned the lesson attached no idea whatever to the words, and consequently in a year from the time, unless their memory is refreshed by constant reviews, will have forgotten the whole matter. Has there been any intellectual growth here?

In the second class, every child has added to himself a new idea, which he can clothe in words, because it is part of himself. Every child, then, has taken one step farther towards that development of mind, which is, or should be, the aim of all educators to promote. To be sure, they have learned only one thing; but has the other class really learned even that? Let us trace the progress of the two classes for the next six months: this is easily done in the first case, since the first lesson is a type of all the others; for at each a page or two is assigned, explained, and committed to memory. At the end of the six months, they have, perhaps, gone over some forty or fifty pages. A very few, say one-fifth, and these the choice spirits of the class, have gained a few intelligible ideas; three-fifths have gained a collection of words alone, and one-fifth are quite innocent of either words or ideas.

The second teacher, bearing in mind the principle, “not the order of the subject, but the order of nature,” gives her second lesson on the verb, calling on the children for the names of different actions, as “walk,” “run,” “ride,” &c., writing them as they are dictated, and then proceeding in the same manner, as with the noun. At the conclusion of this lesson, the children have gained two distinct ideas, clothed in language which they themselves have applied, the ideas, namely, of a noun and a verb. Now combine them, and they have a third,—the idea of a sentence. By a few well-directed questions, the teacher here leads them to perceive and state that the verb tells something of the noun.

Through all this, notice how faithfully the principle, "first synthesis, then analysis," has been carried out.

The reader will see at what the teacher is aiming. She is aiming to lead her children to an understanding of the relations of words to each other; to see at a glance the bearing and meaning of a sentence, and to feel the force of each word composing it. She is laying the foundation of a thorough knowledge of the English language, and doing something to diminish the number of *mute geniuses* in the world.

Her third lesson is on the adjective. She develops this idea by letting the children describe one or more of the objects, the names of which are written on the board, writing the descriptive words as they are given, before the names of the objects described. Having thus developed the idea, the children will readily clothe it in words; the teacher gives the term, and another step towards the great end is accomplished. The subject of the adverb is next taken up; then the article; then the conjunction. Then come the personal pronoun, the preposition, the interjection. Now that the ground-work is laid, the children can assign to any word its place as a part of speech, and with as good an idea of what they are talking about as the most learned of grammarians. As the several parts of speech have been taken up, the teacher has combined examples of them into sentences, the children pointing out the relation of each word to the others. When the whole nine have been considered, suppose such a sentence as this is given the class to parse: "The black horse runs swiftly to the stable." They proceed in their own childish way, having no knowledge of technical terms, as follows: "The is an article, telling that a particular black horse is meant; black is an adjective, and tells what kind of a horse it is; horse is a noun, and tells what is running; runs is a verb, and tells what the horse does; swiftly is an adverb, telling how the horse runs; to is a preposition, joining runs and stable; the is an article, telling that a particular stable is meant; and stable is a noun, that tells to what the horse runs." So much work can be accomplished in five months. Next would come the technical terms for these childish expressions, "limits," "agrees with," "qualifies," etc. The subject of case would also be brought in here.

In a month more the children parse readily, accurately, and in good language, any simple sentence. This closes the six months' work. The children have used no books,—have committed to memory no definitions but such as they have themselves dictated. Yet which of the two classes has been the most truly educated?

Let a simple sentence be given to the first class, and it will be found that they have no more idea of the relations and nice dependence of its words on one another, than if they had never looked inside of a grammar. They have filled their minds with rubbish, among which can be detected, only here and there, and that with much difficulty, the sparkle of a half smothered idea. These are the children who will cause their teachers such trials of patience and vexation of spirit, when they shall have attained an age, at which they might be reasonably expected to distinguish a noun from a conjunction, or a verb from an adjective. But in the minds of the second class, we find a well-defined, orderly, and methodical array of strong, bright ideas, with not a particle of rubbish to quench or weaken their lustre.



It may be asked, "Would you never use a book?" Yes; after six months more, or so, on the different classes in which the parts of speech are divided, with the grammatical accidents, they will be ready for the book, and the thousand and one nice points and fine shades which our language furnishes.

I sincerely hope that a reformation of some sort may be effected in the teaching of this branch of knowledge, before long,—that grammar may be raised to its proper place in the list of school studies, and made as interesting to the child as is his history or geography. It can be done, if every teacher will take hold of the work with a right good will, keeping constantly in view the principles upon which all our teaching should be grounded: "Develop the idea, before giving the term." "Synthesis, before analysis,—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature."

A BOSTON TEACHER.

## TO THE TEACHERS AND FRIENDS OF EDUCATION OF OHIO.

The next annual session of the Ohio State Teachers' Association will be held in Zanesville, and will commence on the evening of the 3d of July (Tuesday). Among the topics of discussion, the following will come before the Association for its consideration:

1st. Graded Schools in Rural Districts: How far have they been tried, and how have they succeeded when the trial has been made? What prevents the further adoption of the plan.

2d. The feasibility of a General Plan for the Education and Training of Teachers, embracing a Normal School, Judicial-District and County Institutes.

3d. Whether it is advisable for Teachers to labor for the establishment of County Superintendencies.

4th. Whether English Grammar is now generally taught so as to be of any considerable advantage to the student.

5th. Whether the study of Higher Arithmetic ought not to give way to the study of Algebra and Geometry, and, as far as possible, of other branches of the Higher Mathematics.

6th. Whether the true theory of Object Teaching is the one which is now pressed upon the attention of American Teachers.

Teachers are earnestly requested to write out and present to the Association short papers on these topics, which shall not occupy more than ten or twelve minutes in the reading, and prepare themselves to present in the discussions which may arise, as succinctly as possible, their maturest thoughts in regard to the same.

It is confidently expected that there will be a large attendance, and the Committee are assured that the usual courtesies will be extended to ladies attending the convention, and that the railway companies will make the usual liberal reduction of fare on their respective roads.

The State of Massachusetts had a gathering, recently, of nearly two thousand teachers. That must have been a glorious assemblage. Let us have such a meeting that those who attend may go from it with more ardent feeling and higher hopes than those with which they came together.

ANDREW J. RICKOFF,  
*Chairman of Ex. Committee.*

## Editorial Department.

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DURING the months of April and May we added to our subscription books the names of over *one thousand* new subscribers. The loss during the same time by expiration of subscriptions was about seven hundred, which leaves a net gain of over three hundred. This increase of circulation indicates that our expectations at the beginning of the year will be realized, and that the continued support of the *Monthly* is a fixed fact. We trust that this announcement will stimulate all to renewed efforts to make the circulation of the *Monthly* equal to the new opportunities for usefulness now before it.

We would remind those whose subscription commenced in July, 1865, that this number closes their year. An early renewal of their subscription is solicited. We dislike to part company with any of our readers. Those who may wish to subscribe for only six months can do so by remitting *seventy-five cents*.

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### THE PROFESSIONAL CHARACTER OF THE MONTHLY.

We do not expect to be able to make the *Monthly* interesting to those who feel no special interest in educational questions. Persons who care nothing about politics are not likely to be interested in a political paper; and an enthusiastic admirer of the New York *Ledger* would doubtless pronounce the best of our religious papers "dry" and "prosy." Millions leave the Bible unread because they have no inward thirst for its living waters. We are not, therefore, at all surprised to learn that a few of our readers (?) would like the *Monthly* much better if it contained a liberal supply of attractive and fascinating stories, and fewer articles having reference to those vital questions which underlie the teacher's duties. Such teachers have simply made a wrong investment of funds. Instead of subscribing for the *Monthly* they should have purchased the last novel.

There are other teachers who would like to see their professional organ a rival of *Round Table* or *The Atlantic*. They cull among its pages for literary spices, passing by everything that is designed to be nutritious to the growing teacher.

There are still other teachers who think they know all about teaching that is worth knowing; who stand, in their own estimation, upon the very summit of professional attainments. Self-sufficient, they do not seek the stimulus and assistance which may be derived from the ideas and methods of others. Indeed, they commiserate the condition of those who are inquiring for better methods of teaching. The teacher who finds anything of interest or profit in the plans

and suggestions of others, is put down as a novice in his business. Place upon their table an educational journal or treatise, and they will smile at your veridancy in supposing that they ever read such professional puerilities. They may, perchance, condescend to fumble the leaves delicately, while they enlighten you respecting their pre-eminent qualifications and success.

Now we frankly confess that we are not editing the *Monthly* with the expectation of interesting or directly benefiting either class of teachers above described. On the contrary, we have in view those earnest, progressive teachers who realize the responsibility of their high vocation, and who, unsatisfied with their present attainments, are earnestly seeking for higher qualifications and more satisfactory results. We seek to interest and benefit those who are willing to be interested and benefited; to assist those who are striving to lift themselves out of the deep ruts of the profession.

Nor are our purposes and efforts wholly vain. Hundreds of the best teachers in the State gratefully acknowledge their indebtedness to the *Monthly*, not only for needed stimulus and encouragement, but for valuable suggestions and ideas. We are constantly cheered by the reception of such acknowledgements. Nor are these assurances that the special mission of the *Monthly* is appreciated, confined to inexperienced teachers. The most eminent teachers of the country have heartily commended it for the directness and practicalness with which it bears upon the daily duties of the school-room as well as for its references to the higher problems of education. And the more strictly and earnestly professional we have made the *Monthly*, the heartier have been these assurances of appreciation, and the more satisfactory its pecuniary support.

But though we aim to make the *Monthly* distinctively professional, we also strive to give to it a literary character worthy of the cause it advocates. While we have no special admiration for what is known as "fine writing," we like to see important educational truths clothed in attractive garments. We have been, for this reason, much pleased with the series of articles entitled "Talks after Working Hours," which closed in the May number, and we hope to receive other contributions of like character. The essentials of the literary aspirations of the *Monthly* are point, vigor, and freshness, good grammar and pure English.

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## THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION FOR CONDUCTING RECITATIONS.

Why should the teacher make special preparation for conducting each recitation? What should such special preparation include? Why should it include the method of conducting the recitation? Why should the teacher's knowledge go beyond the text-book used by his class? To what extent should the teacher use a text-book in hearing a lesson? What direction can you give respecting the assigning of lessons?—*Questions on the Theory and Practice of Teaching.*

The recitation is largely the measure of the teacher's success. Skill here insures success in every direction, while a failure here is a failure throughout. Prompt, thorough and inspiring recitations create in the pupil a love for study, secure vigorous application, and promote good order. If, on the contrary, the

test to which the pupil is subjected in the recitation, be haphazard, superficial, and lifeless, his preparation will be quite sure to have the same characteristics. In other words, the study of the pupil, both in extent and thoroughness, will not rise, as a general rule, above the requirements of the recitation. It is, therefore, of the highest importance that the teacher come before his classes prepared to do his work skillfully; and this preparation must extend to every recitation and to every exercise. The teacher's preparation must be as wide as his duties. He can not afford to fail anywhere, and without careful preparation he is almost sure to fail somewhere.

The teacher's preparation for the duties of the recitation should include:

1. *A familiar acquaintance with the subject matter of the lesson.* He should have the whole subject in his mind, not in dim and shadowy outline, but in bold relief, with every essential fact and principle clear and distinct. His knowledge of the subject he teaches must be systematic, fresh, ready—*at hand*. In the presence of his class, he has no opportunity to recall the half-forgotten results of past study, or to pursue some new idea or casual inquiry to see whether it be substance or shadow. Every power and energy of his mind are required to search through the minds of his pupils; to test the results of their study; to arouse a dormant faculty here and to energize a feeble power there; and so to order the entire work of the recitation that the pupil's knowledge may be clarified, his impressions deepened, and his view of the subject as a whole made more distinct and permanent. All this requires special previous preparation—a preparation wider than the particular text-books used by the class; a mastery, indeed, of the subject in its entirety.

2. But the teacher must also be familiar *with the particular text-book studied by his pupils*, otherwise he will not be able to test thorough their study—a matter of vital importance. Few of the text-books used in our schools are designed to be exhaustive. They present only an outline of the several subjects of which they treat, with such details as, in the judgment of the author, are most important. This outline and these details, few or many, constitute the basis of the pupil's preparation. Clearly, before the teacher can test efficiently the pupil's mastery of the subject as thus unfolded, he must himself be as familiar with the author's treatment of it as he desires the pupil to be. He must not only know what facts are presented, but the order in which they are presented. Such an acquaintance with the text-book will enable the teacher to select and arrange his questions or topics so as to cover completely the lesson assigned, and to detect any remissness in study or failure of comprehension on the part of the pupil. All this should be done without a slavish use of the text-book. In conducting recitations in reading and spelling, the teacher may be obliged to use the book. The use of the book may also be justifiable in assigning problems in mental and written arithmetic. There are, however, few practices common among teachers more pernicious than the use of printed questions in catechising classes. It reduces the teacher to a sort of machine, places an obstruction at every outlet of the soul, represses all enthusiasm, and renders the recitation mechanical and lifeless. A reference to the text to determine the correctness of the answers given by pupils, is an evidence of incompetency too palpable to be justified. It may be accepted by the young teacher as a guiding

maxim, that the *minimum* of his dependence upon the text-book in conducting recitations will be the *maximum* of his success. He should aim to come before his classes with a *free eye*.

3. The teacher's preparation should also include *the method of conducting the recitation*. Other things being equal, the better the method, the better will be the results attained. "In what manner can I test the study of my pupils most thoroughly?" "How can I secure the highest possible amount of mental effort from each pupil, during the recitation?" "How can I best teach this principle?" "What new illustration can I use?" "In what respects should my general method be modified in hearing this particular lesson?" These are some of the inquiries which daily spring up in the mind of the earnest, progressive teacher. He is not satisfied to repeat the blunders and failures of yesterday without an effort to avoid them. Every day renews the struggle for the attainment of truer results. Under the inspiration of an unattained but not unattainable ideal, his entire work is subjected to close scrutiny. The educational principles which underlie his methods are searched out and examined into. One guiding maxim after another is accepted and acted upon. Nor does he overlook those details which make up what may be termed the mechanism of his school. The best mode of calling out and dismissing classes; the best mode of calling upon pupils to recite; the best position for them to assume when reciting;—these and other inquiries receive careful attention, with a consequent increase of skill and success.

4. In order that the pupil's preparation may be thorough, *each lesson should be properly assigned*—a matter too often neglected. In the proper assignment of lessons there are three things to be considered: the capability of the class; the time available for study; and the nature of the lesson. To assign lessons frequently which are beyond the pupils' ability to master, is sure to break down the spirit of study in any school. Before assigning a lesson a teacher should make himself familiar with its difficulties, so that he may be able to estimate both the amount and degree of mental effort necessary for its preparation. The lesson should be assigned definitely, and the requirements of the recitation should be clearly stated. Whenever the lesson contains anything that is difficult or specially important, the attention of the class may be called to the same; but, as a general rule, no explanation of difficulties should be given until the pupils have attempted their mastery. Prior explanations take from the pupil the necessity of earnest study, and destroy that manly independence which is the very soul of study. It is the teacher's office to guide and stimulate, but the pupil must himself wrestle with the difficulties which confront him. The teacher may point out the best path, but the pupil must do the climbing. The practice, common in some of our schools, of explaining in advance every rule or process in arithmetic, is pernicious. It reduces the pupil to a mere figuring machine. We here refer more specially to the assignment of lessons to advanced classes.

It may be added for the encouragement of young teachers, that the faithful preparation for the duties of the recitation, above indicated, will lighten the burden of school government, lessen the fret and wear of teaching, keep the mind fresh and vigorous, and promote good health. Try it.

## ORAL LESSONS IN ARITHMETIC.

Our schools seem to be making slow progress in the art of primary instruction. Only here and there do we find one that is fairly out of the old ruts. Brief and spasmodic efforts are sometimes made by teachers in the direction of object lessons and oral instruction, but these are temporary diversions, rather than settled departures, from the beaten track. Indeed, the great majority of our primary teachers are still laboring under the delusion that object teaching is a separate branch of instruction, and, hence, their efforts to introduce the system are exhausted in a few miscellaneous lessons on familiar objects. The foremost city in the State in introducing object lessons into its primary schools, is now using as a first book in geography a treatise which is an embodied violation of every fundamental principle of object teaching—and this, too, without the introduction of any prior course of oral instruction to prepare the pupils for its use. An extended series of miscellaneous lessons on objects mixed with, but not modifying, the usual routine of book lessons, is something quite different from the beautiful system of elementary instruction called object teaching, which was presented by Comenius, and afterward perfected by Pestalozzi and his disciples.

But it is not our present purpose to enter upon a discussion of object teaching. We wish rather to sketch for the inexperienced teacher a course of oral instruction in arithmetic which embodies the principles of the system, and which, in our judgment, should precede the use of a text-book by the pupil.

## FIRST STEP.

The first step in oral instruction in arithmetic is to develop the idea of number, and lead the pupil to a perception of any number from one to ten inclusive. For this purpose the teacher should be provided with a variety of convenient objects, such as blocks, pointers, pencils, marbles, grains of corn, etc. In the absence of such objects, the teacher may use marks upon the black-board. His fingers will serve a good purpose.

A distinct perception of each number, beginning with one and increasing gradually to ten, is to be developed by exhibiting the corresponding number of objects, and requiring the class to tell how many are thus exhibited, the name of the number being always united with the *name* of the objects, as *two marbles*, *three fingers*, *four pencils*, *five books*, etc. This exercise may be varied by the teacher's naming numbers, and requiring the pupils to exhibit the corresponding number of objects, or to represent the same by marks upon the slate or black-board, by repeating words, musical sounds, etc. It may be united with lessons in printing and drawing by having the pupils make groups of letters, lines, triangles, circles, etc., to represent numbers named by the teacher. The exercise should be continued until the pupils are able to name *instantly* and *without counting*, the number of objects in any group not exceeding ten. It may be carried higher, say to twelve or fifteen, but it is believed that with ordinary children *ten* will be found a proper limit.

This step may be concluded by drills in rapid counting from one to ten, for-

ward and backward. For this purpose the following table, made upon the black-board, will be found convenient:

```

O
O O
O O O
O O O O
O O O O O
O O O O O O
O O O O O O O
O O O O O O O O
O O O O O O O O O
O O O O O O O O O O

```

The teacher points to the successive groups, beginning with the first, and the pupils name the number of objects in them, thus: one, two; two, one; one, two, three; three, two, one; one, two, three, four; four, three, two, one, etc. This exercise should be continued until the greatest rapidity and accuracy are secured. The pupils should also be taught to make the figures which represent these numbers.

#### SECOND STEP.

The next step is to teach the addition and subtraction of numbers under ten. This is to be accomplished by uniting and separating groups of objects, and naming the number in the resultant or remaining groups. This must be done by the pupils *without counting*—an easy task after the exercises of the first step have been fully mastered. The teacher holds up three fingers, and the pupils say, "Three fingers." He then holds up two fingers, using the other hand, and the pupils say, "Two fingers." He then brings the two groups together, and the pupils say, "Five fingers." "Three fingers and two fingers are five fingers." The teacher then takes away two fingers, and the pupils say, "Three fingers." "Two fingers from five fingers leave three fingers." This illustrates the character of the exercises. Various objects may be used. Marks upon the black-board will be found convenient.

The teacher may find it best to commence with the addition and subtraction of the number one, then passing successively to two, three, four, etc., avoiding any result exceeding ten. Great care should be taken to advance no faster than the pupils can be taught to combine and separate the groups *instantly*, and without reference to the order of the numbers. The pupils should also be required to prepare the exercises by arranging objects (grains of corn are excellent), or by drawing lines upon the slate or black-board. The following table in which three is added and subtracted, will serve as an illustration:

```

I I I I
I I I I
I I I I I
I I I I I I
I I I I I I I
I I I I I I I I
I I I I I I I I
I I I I I I I I

```

In reciting the pupils will be required to follow the pointer of the teacher, or to notice carefully the objects presented, and repeat:

"Two lines and three lines are five lines;

Three lines from five lines leave two lines;"

and so on, until the desired accuracy and skill are secured.

But this step must go farther than this. The pupils must be drilled in adding and subtracting these small numbers without the use of objects or marks. A few illustrations are given:

Two boys and three boys are how many boys?

Three balls and four balls are how many balls?

John has five peaches. If he eats two, how many will he then have?

There are seven hats hanging on the hooks. If four are taken away, how many will be left?

Examples similar to these can be multiplied by the skillful teacher to almost any extent. They should also be combined with the previous exercises in which objects are used, with a view of affording variety and quickening the conceptive powers of the pupil.

If the age of the pupils will permit, the teacher should conclude the exercises of this step *by passing from concrete to abstract numbers*. This will require time and skill. Commencing with the combination of groups of objects, the combination of abstract numbers may be reached, thus:

\* \* \* \* \*

Three stars and four stars are how many stars?

Three and four are how many?

### THIRD STEP.

Thus far the exercises have all been confined to numbers not exceeding ten. This has been done with a view of keeping clearly within the scope of the pupil's comprehension, and to secure that skill in the combination of small numbers which all experience has shown to be essential to the highest success in the combining of larger numbers. The synthesis and analysis of the nine digits constitute the basis of all elementary instruction in arithmetic.

The next step is to develop a clear perception of each number from ten to twenty, and to teach the addition of any two or more numbers whose sum does not exceed twenty.

In developing the perception of a number composed of one ten and one or more units, as 12, 15, 16, 17, etc., the number should be represented by two groups of objects, a group of ten and a group containing the number of units. Take, for example, the number twelve. Ten lines are drawn upon the black-board and two more beneath them, thus:

I I I I I I I I I I  
I I

The pupil sees at a glance that the first row contains ten lines and the second two. By commencing with ten and counting the second row, thus: ten, eleven, twelve, he finds that ten lines and two lines make twelve lines, or that twelve lines are two more than ten lines. In like manner by the use of groups of objects or marks, he is led to see that ten and three are thirteen; ten and four,



fourteen; ten and five, fifteen, etc. This exercise should not be hurried over but should be so varied and repeated as to fix the composition of each number indelibly in the mind of the pupil. The teacher may draw ten lines upon the black-board, and then call upon different pupils to draw lines enough beneath to make fourteen; to make sixteen; to make twelve, etc. He may arrange ten objects in a group, and require the pupils to add a second group, making a specified number. He may name different numbers, and ask how many must be taken from each to leave ten. When sufficient accuracy in this direction is thus secured, the pupils may be taught to represent each number from ten to twenty by figures.

The pupil is now prepared to add any two numbers represented by the nine digits. He can already add any two numbers whose sum does not exceed ten. By proceeding gradually, first combining groups of objects, and then the numbers representing these groups, the whole work may be thoroughly accomplished. By reversing the process of addition exercises in subtraction may be introduced. Some teachers prefer to unite addition and subtraction in this manner; others prefer to make the pupil skillful in adding before the process of subtraction is taken up.

Pupils may next be taught to count to one hundred, and to read and write any number expressed by two figures.

Next month we shall present a classified series of slate and black-board exercises, and an outline of a course of instruction in multiplication and division.

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### SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

When we hear of a school examination that is fairly and efficiently conducted, we like to make a note of it. We learn from the *Xenia Torchlight* that a recent examination of the public school at Alpha, Greene county, was conducted as follows: "No text-books were used, but from fifty to a hundred of the most difficult questions were selected from each study, written on folded slips of paper, and placed in a box; from which, after being well shaken, they were drawn by the pupils in turn." How do teachers like this plan? We used it years ago, and can commend it. If the questions or topics are fairly selected, it affords a thorough test of the pupil's proficiency.

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THE ANNUAL MEETING of the State Association will be held at Zanesville, commencing on the evening of the third of July. The partial programme announced in another place by the Chairman of the Executive Committee, promises an interesting and profitable session. Every earnest superintendent and principal, every live teacher, every wide-awake school-officer, and every zealous friend of education, should be there. We hope to see a rousing meeting—one that will be an honor to the school spirit of the State.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**PREMIUM FOR SUBSCRIBERS.**—To the person sending us the largest number of subscribers between the first day of June and the first day of September, we will present a copy of the latest edition of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary—price \$12. Who wishes to secure a copy of this magnificent and incomparable work? Send in the names. Subscriptions may commence in January or July.

**INSTITUTE ENGAGEMENTS.**—We have already made engagements to attend twelve institutes during the coming summer and fall, and have only *four* weeks left that we can devote to similar service.

**ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CLEVELAND SCHOOLS.**—We are glad to see once more a published report of the Cleveland schools. Formerly a report was published each year, but since 1860 only two reports have appeared—the one now before us being the second. Our interest in the report is lessened by its tardy appearance; but those who know Mr. SMYTH need not be told that this is not his fault. Many can testify from personal experience that he is an almost merciless rebuker of the whole race of slow coaches who come to duty behind time. We fear that the tardy issuing of its reports has, by frequent repetition, become chronic with the Cleveland Board.

The report, under notice, covers the school year ending August 31, 1865, and presents very clearly and satisfactorily the progress and condition of the schools. It contains many very interesting facts, to which, did space permit, we should take pleasure in alluding. The Superintendent's review of the several grades of schools indicates that substantial progress has been made under his administration. The gradation has been improved; pupils have been promoted when prepared rather than to relieve crowded rooms or to occupy vacant seats; the "card and primer classes" in the primary departments are dismissed at recess each half day; the number of studies pursued simultaneously by the pupils has been reduced; increased school accommodations have been provided; principals' weekly meetings have been organized; the salaries of the teachers have been largely increased, etc. Several topics are ably discussed, among which are the gradation of teachers' salaries, high schools, and moral instruction. The Cleveland schools are in good hands, and are, moreover, blessed with a corps of teachers second in ability to no other west of the Alleghenies.

**INDIANA STATE NORMAL INSTITUTES.**—The State Central Committee of Indiana announce four State Normal Institutes, to be held as follows: No. 1 at Laporte and No. 2 at Bloomington, both commencing July 16th; No. 3 at Greensburg and No. 4 at Peru, both commencing July 23d. Each institute will continue in session three weeks. The Committee announce that they have secured the services of RICHARD EDWARDS, President of the Normal School of Illinois, E. E. WHITE, of Ohio, and Mrs. SMITH, of the Oswego Training School, N. Y., who will each spend one week at each of the four institutes. Teachers of Ohio who may wish to attend either of these institutes, will receive a cordial welcome. A. C. SHORTRIDGE, of Indianapolis, Ind., is chairman of the Committee.

**GREENE COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—A teachers' institute was held at Xenia during the week commencing April 23. The teachers of Xenia and vicinity manifested a lively interest in the exercises. Other portions of the county were poorly represented—a result doubtless due, in part, to the fact that the institute was the first held in the county, and the teachers were not fully awake to its advantages.

**SOUTH-WESTERN NORMAL SCHOOL.**—While in attendance upon the late teacher's institute at Lebanon, we had the pleasure of a brief visit to the normal school. We were specially gratified in being able to witness a drill of the teacher's training class, which is under the direction of the principal, Mr. HOLBROOK. The exercise related to the teaching of mental arithmetic, and was designed to show practically how to secure the faithful preparation of the lesson, and how to hold the attention of each pupil during the recitation. Different members of the class were called upon to assume the position of teacher. Mistakes in management were pointed out both by the members of the class and by the principal. The class numbered about twenty-five.

We also witnessed the morning devotional exercises, where we saw the students together. They made a fine appearance. By vote of the students the recitations were dispensed with to afford them an opportunity of attending the institute. The whole number of students now in attendance is about 250.

The annual session of the normal institute—the short session of the normal school—commences on the 10th of July. For fuller information, see the card of the principal.

**TEACHERS' SALARIES IN CINCINNATI.**—A committee appointed by the principals of the Cincinnati schools, has petitioned the School Board to adopt the following schedule of salaries to take effect at the commencement of the next school year:

**INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.**—Principals to be appointed at \$2,000, and increased annually, till the salary amounts to \$2,400. First male assistant, \$1,400; to be increased annually, till the salary amounts to \$1,600. First female assistant, \$800; to be increased annually, till the salary amounts to \$1,000. All other assistants at \$600; to be increased annually, till the salary amounts to \$900.

**DISTRICT SCHOOLS.**—Principals (present employees), to be appointed at \$1,800; salary to be increased annually, till it amounts to \$2,000. New appointees at \$1,600; to be increased in the same manner. First male assistants, \$1,200; to be increased annually, till the salary amounts to \$1,400. Other assistants at corresponding salaries.

It will afford us very great pleasure to record the fact that this schedule is adopted by the School Board.

**LORIN ANDREWS' MONUMENT.**—We learn from the *Western Episcopalian* that a monument has been erected to the memory of LORIN ANDREWS, near his grave in the cemetery of Kenyon College, Gambier, O. It is thus described:

The pillar is simple, consisting of a plinth of light brown sand-stone, surmounted by a pedestal and base of white marble, sustaining a square shaft or spire of the same material; the height of the whole being about fourteen feet. The pedestal contains the sculptured military insignia of sword and strappings. The base bears the following inscription: "Lorin Andrews, President of Kenyon College, eminent as a Teacher, Patriot and Christian: the first in Ohio to answer to the call of his country in 1861; he served as Colonel of the 4th O. V. I. in the first campaign against the Great Rebellion, and died, a Martyr to the Union, Sept. 18, 1861, aged 42 years, honored and beloved by all." The shaft bears, near its summit, the sculptured device of a cross and rayed crown, encircled by an oak-wreath.

**WARREN COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—A two-days' session of this institute was held at Lebanon on the 18th and 19th days of May. There was a large attendance of teachers, and the exercises were of unusual interest. Addresses were delivered by Hon. JOHN A. NORRIS, Commissioner of Common Schools, Rev. A. D. MAYO, A. HOLBROOK, JOHN HANCOCK, and others. The members of the institute were most hospitably entertained by the citizens of the town. If any one is in search of live teachers he can find several score in Warren county.

**XENIA.**—The public schools which have been for several years under the supervision of Mr. GEO. S. ORMSBY, are in excellent condition. Mr. O. is assisted by an efficient corps of teachers.

**GUERNSEY COUNTY.**—The examiners are determined to elevate the standard of qualifications among the teachers of the county. A large proportion of the applicants examined this spring have been rejected, and the examiners express a willingness to publish the answers of any rejected applicant who may desire it.—**JOHN MCBURNAY** and **T. H. SMITH** will organize a teacher's class at Cambridge on the 6th of June, for the benefit of teachers who desire to review the common branches. The school will continue six weeks.

**WAVERLY.**—The Pike county *Republican* says: "If a new school-house is not erected soon, the new cemetery should be at once completed." The old school-house is crowded with pupils, some of whom the editor thinks are likely to be transferred to the cemetery if pure air is not speedily provided.—A teachers' meeting was held at Waverly on the 28th of April. Twenty-one of the teachers of the county were present. The best methods of teaching orthography and English grammar were discussed.

**MASSILLON.**—The Union school is under the supervision of Mr. **JOSEPH KIMBALL**, late of Andover, Mass., and is in a prosperous condition. Mr. K. is a gentleman of fine scholarly attainments, and is proving a worthy successor of the eminent superintendents who preceded him—**LORIN ANDREWS** and **T. W. HARVEY**.

**PAINESVILLE.**—The citizens of this enterprising town have voted a tax of \$6,850 to purchase a lot and erect a building to accommodate two secondary and two primary schools, of forty pupils each. The vote was *unanimous*.

**WISCONSIN.**—The *Journal of Education*, which was revived in March, is meeting with poor success. The publisher announces in his third issue (May), that he is losing over \$100 per month. We shall give him credit for more pluck than wisdom if he carries such a load long. But what is the matter with Wisconsin teachers?—**White-water** and **Platteville** have been selected as sites for two of the three normal schools provided for by law.

**SCHOOL REPORTS.**—The State Superintendents of California, Iowa, Wisconsin, Maine, Kansas and New York will please accept our thanks for copies of their annual reports. The school reports of the following cities are also upon our table: New York, Chicago, Detroit and Boston. We can only assure our unfortunate readers who can not see these documents, that we commiserate their condition. We also take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the eleventh annual report of the New Jersey State Normal School.

**JARED SPARKS, LL.D.**, the well-known author and scholar, died at Cambridge, Mass., on the 14th of March, aged 76 years. His principal historical works constitute a library of sixty-seven volumes.

**GEN. T. F. WILDES** graduated at the last session of the Cincinnati Law School, and has entered upon the practice of the law at Athens, Ohio. As teacher, editor, and military officer, he has been eminently successful, and we wish him like success in his new profession.

**MISS MARTHA BALDWIN**, a graduate of Baldwin University at Berea, Ohio, is professor of the Greek and Latin languages in the Baker University of Kansas. She is only about twenty-one years of age.

**PROF. EDWARD L. YOUNG**, author of "Youngman's Chemistry," has entered upon his duties as professor of chemistry in Antioch College. Under the impulse of a substantial endowment and a full faculty, Antioch has entered upon a new career of prosperity. **DR. CRAIG** is the acting President.

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ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

BY PROF. HENRY N. DAY, NEW HAVEN, CT.

The progress made during the last few years in the grammatical exercise of *parsing*—of parting or analyzing the English sentence—is very noticeable, as it is, certainly, very encouraging. From the simple indication of the inflectional forms of words and of the general uses or functions of words in the sentence, this exercise has gradually passed into an indication of the thought and of its relationships as expressed in those verbal forms. So great is this progress that *parsing* and *analysis* seem to express entirely distinguishable procedures,—the former being taken rather to respect the words, their forms and position in the sentence, while analysis is thought to look beyond and to take into view rather the elements and relations of the thought.

It is evident that this progress still continues. The goal is not yet reached. The diversified modes of analyzing presented in different grammars of the language, and, also, the confounding of elements which seems still to mar the best methods of analysis, evince that the science does not yet recognize that perfection is attained. The interests of the science and of education call for continued study and labor in carrying still forward this progress.

There are two simple, yet fundamental principles governing all

correct analysis, which have been more or less overlooked or disregarded in the methods presented of analyzing or parsing the English sentence. The first of these principles enjoins a clear and correct apprehension of the thing to be analyzed—the sentence; the second enjoins that the analysis proceed by regular and distinct co-ordination and subordination of the parts attained in the analysis.

The disregard of the first principle named may be exemplified in the confounding of the sentence with full address, in which, besides the sentence or the communicated thought, there are found the representations of the speaker and of the person spoken to. Thus, in the following extract: “You can not, my Lords, I venture to say it, you can not conquer America,” the expressions, *my Lords* and *I venture to say it*, are not parts of the sentence proper—the communicated thought. The whole may be called a *complex sentence*, as it is a sentence complicated with foreign elements—the representation of the persons addressed, and, also, a modification of the speaker’s own mind back and independently of the communicated thought. Such elements are widely to be distinguished from what has sometimes been termed the case absolute; as, in the sentence, “*The sun having set*, the sports were brought to an end.” The italicized phrase here is a part of the sentence proper, and, in all correct parsing or analysis, must be referred to its proper place in the sentence.

Another instance of a disregard of this principle occurs in this, that all parts of discourse that contain proper assertive forms of the verb are taken to be alike sentences, thus confounding merely represented judgments with actual judgments. We have, thus, principal sentences and dependent sentences. It is not the nomenclature by which this recognized distinction is designated so much as the confusion and error which are involved in treating the mere form of a thought as a true thought—a merely represented judgment as a veritable judgment. Loose popular discourse may admit it; but scientific precision and technical accuracy forbid it. A sentence is essentially a real judgment of the speaker, and a judgment which he merely represents and so treats, as a mere object of thought should not be confounded with such a true judgment. A represented judgment should ever be recognized as different from a sentence by having a different name given it—as

*clause.* For example, the following expressions in italics are not true sentences, but only clauses and parts of sentences—principal or modifying elements of sentences: “He fought *that he might conquer* ;” “*That Nero himself caused the city to be burned* is sufficiently established in history ;” “*How he went* is uncertain ;” “He *who thinks accurately* will speak accurately ;” “I will go *if it be possible*.” In the thorough and accurate analysis of the sentence, it should not be confounded with a clause, or a mere element of a sentence.

It is equally necessary to conform to the principles of co-ordination and subordination in all correct analysis. The primary, co-essential and co-ordinate elements should first be indicated, and then the subordinate elements be named in the due order of their subordination. To what extent and how fatally to all correct analysis this obvious principle has been disregarded, one or two instances in prevalent methods of analysis will sufficiently illustrate. The philosophical grammarian, K. F. Becker, distinguishes *the predicative, the attributive, and the objective* combinations as the three comprehensive and exclusive elements of the sentence.\* But these are not co-essential elements; for we may have a sentence with neither of the two last-named elements. Neither are they co-ordinate; for the objective is primitively but a part of the predicative element; and the attributive is but a derivative from it. In the sentence—“His search was for gold,” “for gold,” according to this method, is both an integral element of the predicative combination, and at the same time a like element of the objective combination; while in the sentence—“His search *for gold* was fruitless,” “for gold” is an integral part of the attributive combination. The ground of this confusion and at the same time the fatal defect in the theory are to be found in the mistaking of an accidental form in the outward expression for that of the inner thought. Becker sought to find in the fact that these combinations embrace most if not all those found in the verbal structure of sentences their logical framework. An almost unavoidable consequence of the adoption of this theory of the sentence, is the eclipsing of the copula, which is the very vital element of the sentence, and the treatment of the sentence as

\* German Grammar, § 206.

composed of only the two elements—the subject and the predicate.

Another popular analysis of the simple sentence resolves it into the subject and the predicate as the necessary elements, and the adjective, the objective, and the adverbial as the incidental elements. To this analysis it may, in like manner, be objected that the subject and the predicate are not the only necessary elements of the sentence, unless under predicate be comprehended the assertive element or copula. But this would violate the law of co-ordination; for the copula stands in no closer relation in thought to the predicate than to the subject. This analysis, moreover, leads practically to the oversight of the proper function and forms of the copula. If the strictest logical distinction were to be made of the primary necessary elements, it would be into the *matter of thought*, embracing the subject and the predicate, and the thought itself. Farther, in this analysis, the so-called incidental elements are not co-ordinate, as they are not either correlative parts of the primary elements, to which, still again, it does not appear what relationship they bear.

In undertaking a new analysis of the sentence, we distinguish at the outset the simple sentence both from the complex and from the compound sentence. We understand by a complex sentence one that complicates the pure sentence as the communication of a thought, or as a thought expressed in words, with elements that do not belong to it. Such extraneous elements we find in full address, when the speaker introduces himself or the person addressed together with the proper sentence or communicated thought. Such expressions, for instance, as these: “As I believe,” “if I may so express myself,” “so to speak,” as also all forms of address, are properly extraneous to the thought—the sentence proper. The introduction of them *complicates* the sentence—makes it *complex*. By a compound sentence we understand the union of two or more simple sentences, so as to make a composite whole of thought, with or without connections, and by the multiplication of some one or more of the three elements of the simple sentence,—the subject, the predicate, and the copula. We understand, thus, by a simple sentence, one that contains but one subject, one predicate, one copula, the expression of either of which may consist of one word or many words, one being a prin-



cial and modified by the others. Modifying words, it will be seen on close inspection, do not complicate the thoughts. If language furnished a word for each subject, predicate, and copula, which we wish to introduce in discourse, we should need no modifying words. These are resorted to in order to eke out the deficiency of our vocabulary.

Taking, then, the pure simple sentence as distinguished from a sentence complicated with extraneous elements, and also from the compound sentence, we find at once that in every proper thought there are the two distinct elements, the matter of which we think—the *datum* to thought, and the thought, the thinking act itself. The thought, the thinking, in the primitive form is a judgment, a judging; and to this element is given the technical name of the *copula*. The matter in every judgment or sentence is of two parts: that of which we think and that which we think, familiarly distinguished as the *subject* and the *predicate*. These three are, then, the primary co-essential elements of every proper sentence, each necessary to the sentence, each a distinct and in thought a separate element.

The copula, as the proper vital element of the sentence, furnishes the primary distinctions. The judgment which it expresses may be presented either as completed or as still unsettled and immature, giving rise to the distinction of *categorical* sentences in which the judgment is represented as complete, and *interrogative* sentences in which it is not fully resolved—that is, is still balancing in doubt.

Moreover, it is equally within the proper sphere of the judgment to recognize that two objects are different—that they do not agree as that they are the same—that they do agree. We have, thus, the distinction of *affirmative* and *negative* sentences.

These are the more generic forms of the copula; or as the copula is its vitalizing element, the primary forms of the sentence—the categorical and the interrogative, each of which may be either affirmative or negative.

(To be Continued.)

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NOTHING elevates us so much as the presence of a spirit similar, yet superior to our own.

## ON MEASURES AND WEIGHTS.

BY S. A. N.

Inasmuch as Congress has legalized the use of the French system of weights and measures, and will, in all probability, adopt the system at no very distant day, an article on the subject will not be out of place in the *Monthly*. If the decimal system has the merit claimed for it, the teachers of the land ought to be the first to adopt it, and the most zealous to make its practical advantages known to the community.

The first necessity to a nation emerging from barbarism, is the adoption of some standard by which merchandise can be estimated. The most natural standard is that adopted by the Romans, derived from the parts of the human body. Thus with them the *pes* was the foot, *palmus* the hand-breadth, *ulna* the arm's length, *passus* the pace, *manipulus* the handful, and so on. But after all such a system of measures must either be very inaccurate or merge into the adoption of arbitrary standards determined by the government. Many of the measures used by the ancients have descended in forms more or less modified to our day, so that we are using one kind of weights for sugar, another for drugs, another for gold, and another for diamonds. A horse is so many hands, a man so many feet, a luke so many fathoms deep. Lady Peliana Bernas can not give us more technical names for nouns of number, as flock, band, swarm, covey, than are used to this day in England and America for weights and measures. Of course, in common life, many terms are obsolete which still retain a definite meaning in certain pursuits. We no longer estimate weights by pigs, or stones, and are fast reducing the tun to 2000 pounds; and doubtless, in the natural course of things, even without legislative enactment, would soon come to use some uniform system.

The first unit of length adopted in England is the yard, which was originally the length of the arm of Henry the First, who ordered that all other measures should be based upon it. This standard has been preserved, and is now the identical yard used in this country and in England. A brass rod in the custody of the House of Commons was for a long time the only standard of

measure; but as any accident might destroy this rod, it was decided that some standard should be adopted which should be less arbitrary in its character. Therefore the first requisite was to discover a natural and invariable standard.

The Parliament adopted as the standard of the time, the diurnal revolution of the earth. This has all the requisites needed. The day has not varied, so far as astronomers can determine the fact, for over 2000 years. It is a natural standard, whose length can be determined by any competent person in any place, or at any time. The day was then divided into 86,400 equal parts, and one of these parts, called a second, was established as the unit of time.

The Parliament then decreed in 1824, that if the imperial standard yard should at any time be lost or destroyed, it should be restored by making "a new standard yard, bearing the proportion to a pendulum vibrating seconds of mean time, in the latitude of London, in a vacuum, and at the level of the sea, as 36 inches is to 39,1393 inches."

In 1834, the brass rod spoken of was destroyed by the burning of the Parliament House. It was then found that so many sources of error attended the measurement of the second's pendulum, that the former yard could not be restored by the method designated by law with certainty to within  $\frac{1}{1000}$  of an inch. For this reason the imperial yard was restored from the best authenticated copies of it, and a new standard yard has been prepared, which was legalized in 1855. The actual standard of measure used in the United States is a brass scale, 82 inches long, made from the old imperial yard in 1813. The temperature at which this scale is a standard is 62° F., and the yard measure is between the twenty-seventh and sixty-third inches of the scale. Recent comparisons with the restored imperial yard show that the British yard is .00087 of an inch shorter than the American. Even this slight error can not be disregarded in the measurements of long distances. One thirty-sixth of the standard yard is the generally received unit of length.

Having now the unit of length, the units of surface and volume follow readily, being respectively the square inch and the cubic inch. Our common measures of bulk were adopted from those used in England at the commencement of this century, and are so

varied that the gallon and quart have two or three different dimensions.

The English imperial gallon contains 277.274 cubic inches. From this the unit of weight is derived. An imperial gallon contains 70,000 grains of distilled water at a temperature of 62° F. 7,000 of these grains are equal to one pound avoirdupois.

It will be seen from this sketch that the only serious difficulty in establishing the English system of weights and measures lies in the measurement of the seconds' pendulum. But it will also be noticed that the different units are not related to each other by any simple multiple, except in the case of the gallon, which contains ten pounds of distilled water.

The standard of the French system has the merit of being invariable and natural. The French commission chose for their unit of length the ten millionth part of the quadrant of the meridian of the earth, and named it the metre. To determine this was found to be a work of great magnitude. An arc of the meridian six degrees each side of the latitude of 45° was measured with great care, and the length of a metre was calculated, being equal to 39.3709 English inches, or nearly the same as the length of a seconds' pendulum at London. But after the whole system had been adopted, it was found that two great errors had been made in the calculation, which had in part balanced each other in the result, so that the calculated metre differed from the metre as defined by  $\frac{1}{33360}$  of the whole. From this it results that the metre is as arbitrary a standard as the English yard, and if destroyed, can not be reproduced in conformity to the definition.

The subdivisions and multiples of the metre, and of the other measures and weights of the French system, are all decimal. The names of the multiples are derived from the Greek numerals: Deca = 10, Hecto = 100, Kilo = 1000. The names of the subdivisions are derived from the Latin numerals; Deci = .1, Centi = .01, Milli = .001. Thus:

#### MEASURES OF LENGTH.

Kilometre, - - - -	1000 metres.	Metre, - - - - -	1	metre.
Hectometre, - - -	100 "	Decimetre, - - - -	.1	"
Decameter, - - -	10 "	Centimetre, - - - -	.01	"
Metre, - - - - -	1 "	Millimetre, - - - -	.001	"

The units of surface are squares, whose sides equal the units of

length. The common French measure of land is the square decameter, which is called an are.

The common unit of volume for liquids is the litre, which is equal to the cubic decimetre, and contains 1.76 pints. The cubic metre which is used to measure bulky materials is called the *steare* = 35.32 cubic feet. The are, litre and *steare* have decimal multiples, and subdivisions named like those of the metre.

The unit of weight is the same as the weight of a cubic centimetre of distilled water at its greatest density ( $36^{\circ}.2$  F.) in a vacuum, and at the latitude of Paris. This unit is called a gramme, and is equal to 15.44242 grains. The kilogramme is the commercial unit, and is a little less than  $2\frac{1}{4}$  lbs. *avoirdupois*.

It will be seen that this system is specially fitted for scientific research, from the simple relation which exists between its members. Thus since the weight of a cubic centimetre of water is equal to one gramme, the weight of any other substance of equal bulk is equal to the number of grammes denoted by its specific gravity, so that the table of specific gravity gives also the actual weight of a cubic centimetre of the substances named.

The French also use the centigrade thermometer, which marks the freezing point of water at zero and the boiling at 100. This scale, although as arbitrary as that of Fahrenheit, has the advantage of the decimal subdivision, and is in general use among scientific men.

The only objection against the adoption of the French, or Metric system, is the inconvenience of learning the new names; but this can have no weight in comparison with its wonderful simplicity. It will be found just as easy to barter for a metre of cloth, or a litre of milk, or a kilogramme of sugar, as for any other denomination. If this system is adopted, it will strike out one great bugbear to beginners in practical arithmetic. To feel its utility one need only work a problem in interest by the English currency.

I will only add that the law which has passed the House, changes the legal weight of a single letter to 15 grammes, and legalizes the use of the French system. It is proposed to have coins struck weighing five and ten grammes, and four centimetres in diameter.

The Legislature of Connecticut has passed a law making it the duty of teachers in the public schools of that State to teach the metric system of weights and measures.

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NOTES: ORTHŒPICAL, ORTHOGRAPHICAL, ETYMOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL.\*—No. I.

BY W. D. HENKLE.

1. *During*, originally a participle of the now obsolete verb *dure*, which signified to last, to continue, to endure, is often improperly used for *on*, *in*, *at*, *within*, etc., by careless and inexperienced writers. Its proper meaning is similar to *throughout*. *During*, however, is applied only to time, while *throughout* is applied to both time and space. "*During*. In the time of; as long as the action or existence of; as, *during* life, *during* the space of a year."—*Webster*. "For the time of, the continuance of."—*Worcester*. Hence such a use of *during* as is found in the following sentences, is wrong: "During the proceedings of the institute, the following resolution was passed without a dissenting vote." "During the spring session of the Clermont County Teachers' Institute, it was resolved, etc."

2. *Reliable*. This word has been condemned by Worcester. He says: "It is ill-formed, and it can not properly have the signification in which it is always used." The argument is, that adjectives in *able* derived from transitive verbs have a passive sense, but those derived from intransitive verbs have an active or neuter sense. Thus from the transitive verbs *see*, *do*, *allow*, etc., come the potential passive adjectives *seeable*, *doable*, *allowable*, etc., and from the intransitive verb *perish*, comes *perishable*. He says: "In order to form a passive adjective from *rely*, we must annex *on* or *upon*, and give it the ludicrous form *reliable* or *reliuponable*, which would properly signify, 'that may be relied on or upon.'" This criticism upon *reliable*, which is a new word,

\*I shall be glad to receive suggestions or criticisms from any one on any points comprehended under the title of these Notes. Questions will also be acceptable. Address me at Salem, O.

is completely met by such words as *laughable*, *dispensable*, *indispensable* and *unaccountable*. De Quincey seems to think that *unreliable* is improper, as the following quotation will show: "Alcibiades . . . was too unsteady and (according to Mr. Coleridge's coinage) '*unreliable*'; or, perhaps, in more correct English, too '*unrelyuponable*.'" Webster's new dictionary says that reliable is "a most convenient substitute for the phrase *to be relied upon*, and a useful synonym for *trustworthy*, which is by preference applied to persons, as reliable is to things, such as an account, statement, or the like." We have the sanction of W. Irving, D. Webster, Sir R. Peel, *N. B. Review*, *Ec. Review*, *Blackwood's Magazine*. etc., for the use of the word *reliable*. This fact taken in connection with the invalidity of the objection made to its formation, should silence all criticism as to the use of the word.

3. *Talented*. This word has been strongly objected to by Coleridge and some other critics. The objection to its use is, that it looks like a participle, but there is no verb to *talent* from which it can be derived. There are many adjectives in English formed from nouns by adding *ed*; as, *gifted*, *bigoted*, *targeted*, *turreted*, *lettered*, etc., which, so far as formation is concerned, are just as objectionable as *talented*. Coleridge says: "I regret to see that vile vocable *talented* stealing out of the newspapers into the leading reviews and most respectable publications of the day." Richardson says: "Dr. Webster has the word *talented* 'furnished with *talents*, possessing skill or *talents*'; and it has been too hastily used in common speech—*here*." It is given by Knowles; and Todd says: "It is an old word, being long disused, but recently revived." The London *Monthly Magazine* (Sept., 1831) blames Mr. Stanley for using this word. "Sir Robert Peel referred it to his American associations, and prayed him never to employ it again, with all the strenuousness of Oxonian adjuration." To which the Philadelphia *National Gazette* adds: "Sir Robert was right in protesting against the word, but wrong in his reference. It is of London cockney derivation, and still more employed in Great Britain than in America." The *Edinburgh Review*, vol. lxy, p. 240, says: "Mr. Bulwer is not yet '*talented*', a pseudo-participle, which no one will use who is not ripe for any atrocity; but he '*progresses*' at a fearful rate." Notwithstanding all these

criticisms, the word *talented* must be considered a correct and proper word.

4. *Progress'*. This verb which is now so much used, was for a time obsolete. Johnson inserted it in his dictionary with the definition "to move forward; to pass;" but noted it as "not in use." It has been wrongly supposed to be a pure Americanism. According to Pickering it was revived in this country after the Revolution, and after its revival here again taken into favor in England. The Penny Cyclopædia (art. *Americanism*) says: "The old verb *pro'gress*, which the Americans use very often and pronounce *progre'ss*, is now beginning to be again adopted in its native country, though we think we could do very well without it." The following quotations will show that it was originally accented on the first syllable:

Let me wipe off this honourable dewe,  
That silverly doth *progresse* on thy cheekes.

[*Shakspeare, K. John, Act V, sec. 2.*

———Although the popular blast  
Hath reared the name up to bestride a cloud,  
Or *progress* in the chariot of the sun.

[*Ford, Broken Heart.*

The transitive use made of it by Milton, in Book II, "Of Reformation in England," is obsolete: "In supereminence of beatific vision, *progressing* the dateless and irrevoluble circle of eternity, they shall clasp inseparable hands with joy and bless in over-measure for ever."

For the present use of the word, the following English authorities have been quoted: Southy (in 1799), Sir R. Peel, O'Connell, Coleridge, Morell, Dick, Hord, Bulwer, Dickens, Mary Howitt; the British Critic, the Edinburgh Review, the London Quarterly Review, the Monthly Review, the Eclectic Review, the Dublin Review, the Gentleman's Magazine, the Christian Observer, the Penny Cyclopædia, and the dictionaries of Maunder, Knowles, Smart, Reid, Ogilvie, Boag, Clarke and Wright.

5. *Expect*. The use of this word for *suspect*, *think*, *believe*, *suppose*, and *imagine*, is a blunder too common even among educated persons. "In most parts of the world people *expect* things that are to come. But in Pennsylvania, more particularly in the metropolis, we *expect* things that are past. One man tells an-



other, he *expects* he had a pleasant ride, etc. . . . I have heard a wise man in Gotham say that he *expected* Alexander the Macedonian, was the greatest conqueror of antiquity.”—*Port Folio*, 1809. “Many people have an odd way of saying ‘I *expect*,’ when they only mean ‘I *think*,’ ‘I *conclude*;’ as, ‘I *expect* those books were sent to Paris last year.’”—*P. Gwynne*. Brockett says that *expect* used in the sense of “to *suppose* or *believe* is a common northern expression.” According to Grose, Halliwell, and others, it is provincial in England. Indeed, we find this use of *expect* in the London Athenæum, No. 858, in an article on the the Penny Cyclopædia: “The most sustained departments are those of mathematics, classical literature, astronomy, geography, topography, geology, materia medica, and agriculture. In the articles on these subjects we *expect* that one hand has written or one hand has guided the whole series, and thus completeness has been obtained.”

6. *Hang*. This verb, according to the grammars and dictionaries, should be regular when reference is had to death or execution by suspension. Yet the newspapers almost invariably say the culprit *will be hung, was hung, has been hung*, etc. Should teachers countenance this use of the irregular verb? If so, consistency would demand that the old and much used expression, “I’ll *be hanged* if I do,” should give place to “I’ll *be hung* if I do.”

7. *Firstly*. This word is generally condemned, although it is sometimes used by respectable writers instead of *first*. Smart says: “Some late authors use *firstly* for the sake of its more accordant sound with *secondly, thirdly*, etc.” If the principle involved is a proper one, *third* and *thirdly* might be changed to *threeth* and *threethly* for the sake of their more accordant sound with *fourth, fourthly*, etc.; nay, even such ridiculous expressions as “eight *twenty-oneths* and nine *forty-twoths*” found in “Ray’s Higher Arithmetic,” and similar expressions often used in the school-room, might be justified.

8. *Illy*. This is sometimes improperly used for *ill*. See a criticism on *firstly* and *illy* made by Mr. E. E. White in a previous number of the *Monthly*. [November, 1864, p. 365.]

9. *Badly*. This word is sometimes incorrectly used for *bad*. We should say “I feel *bad*,” not “I feel *badly*,” unless we intend

to convey the idea that the nerves of sensation do not act acutely. When a blind man's fingers are so benumbed as to interfere with his ability to read raised letters, he might properly say, "I feel *badly*." *Badly* is also improperly used for *greatly* or *much*. Instead of "I want *greatly* to see it," or "I want to see it *very much*," we sometimes hear "I want to see it *very badly*."

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## JOHN BRIGHT ON EDUCATION.

[John Bright lately delivered an address before a Sunday-school conference in Rochdale, in which he urged the importance of universal education, citing the example of New England in support of his views: ]

"Mr. Ellice, the very eminent member of the House of Commons for Coventry, traveled in America, as he had done two or three times before, very near the close of his life, some six or seven years ago. He visited Canada and the United States; and in a conversation which I had with him after his return, he said that in those New England States there was the most perfect government in the world, there was the most equal condition, and most universal comfort amongst the people; and he said that the whole population, he believed, were more instructed, more moral, and more truly happy than other equal population had been in any country or in any age of the world. [Cheers.] The whole of this is to be traced, not to the soil, not to the climate; but it is to be traced, I believe, to the extraordinary care which the population, from the days of the Pilgrim Fathers until now, have taken with every child, boy and girl, that they should be thoroughly instructed, at least in the common branches of learning. [Hear, hear.] The census shows that, speaking generally, there is scarcely to be found one person, one native American certainly, and you could not find one out of many hundreds in the New England States, who can not read and write. [Hear, hear.] Now the influence of those States is enormous. Though only small States, containing not more than one-tenth of the whole population of the American Union, yet the influence of their opinions is felt to the remotest corners of that vast territory. [Hear, hear.] In New England they consider their plan as the only plan. They have tried it for two hundred years. Its success is beyond all contest—it is absolutely complete. [Hear, hear.] There is nothing like it that has been equally successful in the world. And what our Puritan ancestors have done (I know they were our ancestors as well as theirs) in the States, if the people of England had the sense to comprehend their true interests, they might compel to be done in the country in which we live. [Loud cheers.]"

## EXPERIENCES.

MY DEAR FRIEND: You ask my opinion as to what should be learned by children under eight years of age, and wish to have my personal experience in the matter, although you know that that has been very limited. Indeed it is only during the last year and a half that I have taught children so young, my teaching before that time having been, as I believe you know, of girls from eight and nine to fifteen years old. I do not see that I can answer your question better than by telling you just what I have been doing with my little class, as I am well satisfied with the results so far, and am inclined to think that though there may be other theories as good as mine, or better, yet this is *one* way, and a good one. At least it has proved interesting both to teacher and children.

My class, when I began with it, in October, 1864, consisted of about half a dozen children, mostly girls, between six and seven years old. All knew their letters, and could read a little, only two, however, with any readiness, even the smallest words; and they were the only ones, I believe, who could print at all. Of course they knew nothing else of school studies, and none of them had been to school or had had any systematic teaching. I began with one session of three hours, and have not increased it. Probably next year I shall add another hour, and give more recess.

My first object was, and is, to make them *love school*; and that not by making a mere amusement of it,—for they love play already, and little would be gained by giving them only another form of play,—but by making the acquisition of knowledge delightful to them. For this, of course, the first requisite was an *atmosphere of happiness* in the school-room: and I believe this is very much more within the teacher's control than teachers generally understand. A bright expression of face, a *cheery* voice, a look of sympathy with the children, as if you were on *their side*, and enjoying their presence and pursuits—these things put the teacher in such a relation with them as will go very far towards making them feel exactly as she would have them, and like to do just what she wants them to do. I should quite like to enlarge on this point to you, as I believe its importance can not be over-estimated; but you asked what a child can and should be taught, and will not thank me for straying off on side questions, however interesting.

Of course the first thing was the reading, and its invariable accompaniments, spelling and writing, which I believe should begin and continue with it. A child can form a letter on the slate and blackboard as soon as he can recognize its form at sight, and can arrange the letters of a word from memory as soon as he can read the word. With regard to the much vexed question of *how* children should be taught to read, I have little experience, and I am inclined to think that a great deal of breath is wasted on the subject by the advocates of the various systems. All children learn to read, and I suppose no way is so stupid and unphilosophical that it will prevent a child's learning. Even the old fashioned method of naming each separate letter first, though so much berated by modern system-makers of all kinds, has the undeniable vantage ground of long experience in its favor—we all learned in that way, and what children

have done, children may do. Still there are, no doubt, quicker and pleasanter, if not more efficacious methods, and without going into the details of the different methods, I may say, for my own part, that I think no rational teacher will be bigoted in the use of any one to the exclusion of all others. The eclectic system, however to be reprobated in medicine, is essential in teaching. But you want my practice, not my theory. When I began with this class all knew a little of reading, as I said; but one I had taught from the beginning, and I will tell you how. I had for years believed in teaching by the sounds of the letters, not their names, my attention being first called to the subject in 1848, by a little primer printed by Dr. Kraitsir, in which the lessons were arranged on that principle. Remembering this, when two years ago, or rather less, I wanted to teach a little fellow just six years old, I bought for the purpose Miss Peabody's First Lessons, prepared in the same manner. But I found it altogether unsatisfactory, and I am quite sure that it is based on a wrong principle, in assuming the Italian sounds of the vowels as a foundation,—a principle which necessitates such violations of pronunciation as to render whole series of examples worthless. So I threw the book aside. While deliberating as to the best thing to do next, and after elaborating quite in detail a plan of reading lessons, based on our simple short and long vowel sounds, I saw an advertisement of Mr. Zachos' Phonic Reader. I got a copy, and finding to my great satisfaction that his theory of sounds was the same as my own, I set to work with great zeal to indoctrinate my young pupil. I taught him the whole alphabet, *by sound* merely, and then proceeded regularly with the reading lessons. Everything worked to a charm—he was very much interested, and made rapid progress. But Mr. Zachos' senseless sentences were too much at last for even our enthusiasm; and though he told us distinctly to read with great expression, and bring out the meaning of each sentence, we found this so difficult and sometimes so impossible a task that we were quite discouraged, and after reading continually fewer sentences in each lesson, we at last merely read the columns of words at the head, and so slipped easily through the book. When I began with the class this boy read as well as the best among them, and could always, and can still find out *new words* more easily than any. In spelling, he is generally behind those who learned in the arbitrary way; he finds it more difficult to commit to memory the words that are not spelled as they are pronounced, and in writing from dictation a lesson that has not been studied, he makes, perhaps, more mistakes than the others, though he never, as they do, writes a word so that it does not pronounce rightly; but his spellings are *phonic*, if often ludicrously wrong.

I put the class at once upon the sounds of the letters, and I should never teach reading without making that the principal basis, however I might vary the teaching in other respects. I may as well tell you here of the only child I have taught from the beginning, a little girl of scarcely five, who began with me this winter. I took the first of Willson & Calkins' Charts, having single words and a picture by each word. Those containing the short vowel sounds only are as follows:

cap,	hen,	dog,	cup,
cat,	egg,	ox,	jug,
bat,	nest,	box,	duck,
lambs,	red,	fox,	drum.

You see there is no short *i*—that list is by itself and I could not use it because it contained double consonants and other combinations that should not be given so early. This list as it stands does not present a very good selection of words as you will readily see, but it has the merit of being free from any soft *c*'s and *g*'s, or other consonant perplexities, and it contains every letter in the alphabet except *q*, *v*, *w*, *y* and *z*. It might as well have had these. Well, I taught these words to my little girl, by the aid of the accompanying pictures, at the same time making her divide each into its component sounds, *c* (hard, of course,) *a* *t*, etc., till she knew each word pretty well, even when I covered the picture, though I was by no means sure that she would recognize them in any other place. This was the work of only three or four lessons. Then, just to try her, I took the alphabet, in order, and pointing to each letter, asked her its sound. She looked at *a*, and I heard her say to herself "*c a*," and then "*a*" aloud. *b*, "that's the first letter in *bat*," she said, and gave the sound. And so through them all. Some of them she hesitated longer over, especially those that occurred but once, or only in the latter words that we had not studied quite so thoroughly. But I believe she thought them out in every instance, aided undoubtedly by a faculty of picturing things before her mind's eye, which has always been marked in her. She saw the columns, and each word in its place, almost as distinctly as if the chart were still before her, and hunted over them for the desired letter till she came to it. She puzzled for a long time over *m*. At last she exclaimed, "Oh, there it is, the very last letter of all, in *dwum*," for she couldn't quite roll her *r*'s then, and is not very skillful yet. She read after that a good many columns in *Zachos*, and I wrote sentences on the blackboard for her, giving her constantly new sounds, and then put her into Sheldon's First Reading Lessons, which she has read about half through. If you have occasion to use such a book, I advise you by all means to get it; it is far prettier than Hillard's or Sargent's, and is only rivaled in my recollection by "*Little Crumbs*," a charming little English reading book, which it very much resembles.

But when I began with my class, I knew no Sheldon, and took Sargent's Primary, which we followed with Hillard's Second, and then Hillard's Third, which we read more than half through before the middle of July brought the summer vacation. In September we began again, and are now in Hillard's Fourth Reader. They read and spell every day, their spelling lessons as such being recited *viva voce*, as by far the quickest method. But they write a great deal on their slates and on the blackboard, and, of course, that is a constant exercise in spelling. They printed only until May, when they were taught the writing letters, each separately, and now they write quite respectably on slates or paper. They have never had ink, but copy with a pencil into a blank book every week some lesson, either of their own composition or written from dictation, which they have prepared on their slates. They like this very much; it is a more permanent monument of their industry and progress, and can be carried home to receive the sympathy and approbation always ready for them there. A very good and pleasant exercise I find the writing from memory of the poetry that they learn once a week, and they have learned to divide the lines and put in the capitals and punctuation excellently. It is not worth while

to enter into any more detail on these points; the variety of modes of interesting children in reading, writing and spelling is absolutely endless, and your ingenuity will suggest as many as mine. Indeed you will soon find that ingenuity, if not one of the most important qualifications of a teacher, is one of those most frequently required.

The reading lessons are always accompanied by lessons in the analysis of sounds, which I vary in form almost every day; and in spelling they are constantly called on to notice the silent letters, the vowel sounds, the different ways of producing the same sounds, or the different sounds produced in the same way, etc. All these things are simply matters of course when one's attention is once drawn to them. I must tell you that reading, spelling and poetry are the only lessons these children *study*; and even they were only begun as studies during the last quarter of the first year. Even now, I am not very strict about the spelling, unless I have seen a disposition to idleness (the unpardonable sin in our busy community), but generally have a misspelled word corrected by another pupil, then spelled in concert by the class, and then by the delinquent.—*A. B. W., in Mass. Teacher.*

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### A FEW THOUGHTS ON THE "EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM."

[We give below the concluding portion of an address delivered by the editor of this journal at the late commencement exercises of the Salem High School. The central thought of the address was, that the inner resources and character of man—his inner life—constitute the source of his success and influence. We copy from the *Salem Republican*.:]

The principles which I have thus tried to elucidate, have a practical exemplification in this day's exercises. The roots of all that we have heard and been delighted with, run back under the soil of years of disciplinary culture and training. The graduating essay is but the resultant of preceding lessons and native talent. What these pupils are in thought, feeling, impulse and purpose, is the fruit of every preceding hour's wrestling with truth, of every past self-denial, of every self-conquest, of every cherished aspiration and endeavor. Here is every hour's patient instruction of these faithful teachers, every word of good counsel, every reproof, every admonition. Nothing has been lost. It is all here, if not in actual fruit, in blossom, or bud, or in life-bearing power. And the influence and success of these pupils as they shall go out from this school into the school of life, will be modified, if not actually determined, by the long succession of duties and privileges which this day terminates. The tree does not bend beneath its burden of luscious fruit as the result of a single day's sunshine, but rather as the rich product of the continued and costly nurture of years of sun, and dew, and shower. Not a ray of sun-light has played over it, not a rain-drop or dew-drop has jeweled its leaves, not a breeze has swayed its branches, without contributing to the burden of glory which now crowns it. So in life. The successful performance of the simplest of to-day's duties may place under tribute a whole life time of preparation; and to-morrow's failure

may date back to childish stumbles over the alphabet or to the early stiffings of conscience respecting what may have seemed to be trivial departures from the line of duty. Men do not gather grapes from thorns nor figs from thistles; nor is success in the emergencies of life the fruit of intellectual and moral emptiness. "If we expect our drafts to be honored in a crisis," says one, "there must have been the deposits of a punctual life."

The doctrine which I have presented, also teaches that the true value of school training is not measured by the amount of actual and available knowledge treasured up by the graduate—and this is true in business as well as professional life. A knowledge of the facts and principles related to each specific duty of life is very important, but higher than this is that developed strength and ability, that power of discernment and application, which can change the dead facts of knowledge into the living realities of human action and endeavor. Knowledge may guide and enlighten, but discipline gives strength of soul, self-poize, grasp, inspiration—and these, be it remembered, are the lucky winners of success in all the conflicts of life.

"You must ever bear in mind," says Carlyle in his recent address to the students of Edinburgh University, "that there lies behind that [particular and technical knowledge] the acquisition of what may be called wisdom—namely, sound appreciation and just decision as to all the objects that come round about you, and the habit of behaving with justice and wisdom."

Unquestionably the right application of the facts of knowledge in the conduct of life is the highest fruit of educational training. "The problem which comprehends every other problem," says Spencer, "is the right ruling of conduct in all directions under all circumstances." The ability, the soul-power, thus to rule one's conduct, which Carlyle calls wisdom,—a result it may be of knowledge, or rather of its acquisition—is as superior to the facts of knowledge as the workman is above his tools. "Wisdom," says Solomon, "is the principal thing: therefore get wisdom; and with all thy getting, get understanding."

Now wisdom is the enduring result of study and instruction. The facts of knowledge acquired at school may be forgotten, that is, they may fade from memory's conscious tablet, but they are absorbed, if I may so speak, by the mind, becoming in a sense a part of it. In ceasing to be conscious knowledge they may become wisdom. The apprehension of truth not only sheds a new light upon all truth, and especially all cognate truth, but it begets an increased power of discernment and multiplies the means of discerning. In other words a search after truth not only imparts to the mind increased strength and vigor, but the truth when acquired creates a power of search in this direction, a quickness of apprehension, which may not inappropriately be called *understanding*.

The man who has devoted years to the study of law, has, as a result of such study, a new power of legal discernment, an acumen, a legal sense, if you please, which gives him increased wisdom in weighing legal questions,—and this may be true though he is not able to recall the verbal statement of a single fact or principle of law that he has ever read.

The facts of chemistry, geology, and natural philosophy, which the majority of these graduates will ever directly and consciously use, may be printed upon the

fly-leaf of their text-books in each of the sciences named, but it by no means follows that the time spent in the study of these sciences has been lost. The habit of scientific thought and investigation, the intellectual vision, the soul-power secured through their mastery,—these remain as the practical fruit and power, the accumulated treasure of school life. Thus we see the wisdom of the remarkable saying of Malebranche, "If I held truth captive in my hand, I should open it and let it fly in order that I might again pursue and capture it." The true measure of study is soul-power.

But it is in the direction of moral influence that these principles have their fullest application. There can be no greater mistake than to suppose that influence and character can long be divorced. We might as well attempt to divide the stream from the fountain. The one is the complement or rather the necessary consequence of the other. Where genuine character is wanting there will also be missed the irresistible charm and power of indwelling goodness and manliness.

Addison, in one of his allegories, describes a conflict for dominion between Truth and Falsehood. As Truth with her shining attendants entered the mythical regions of Falsehood, the dazzling light which emanated from her presence shone upon Falsehood, and the goddess faded insensibly until she seemed more like a huge phantom than substance; and as Truth approached still nearer, Falsehood with her retinue vanished and disappeared as the stars melt away in the brightness of the rising sun.

We have in this allegory a beautiful illustration of the source of that marvelous charm, that almost resistless influence, which flows, albeit unconsciously, from an exalted, noble character. Men do not become influential by the passage of a resolution. Back of the outward semblance there must be the indwelling substance. Our words must bear the stamp of the spirit. It has been truly said that "not the most eloquent exhortations to the erring and disobedient, though they be in the tongues of men and angels, can move mightily upon the resolutions of men, till the nameless, unconscious, but infallible presence of a consecrated heart lifts its holy light into our eyes, hallows our temper and breathes its pleading benedictions into our tones, and authenticates our entire bearing with its open seal." Let us remember that the source of our real influence in life is our genuine personal substance.

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NATURE is the great teacher of childhood, and with her the juvenile mind needs closer contact. Facts and objects are the leading instruments of its early development. We do violence to the child's instinctive cravings for natural objects, when we give it books alone, and confine it exclusively to the city. In a single Grammar School in one of our cities, there are now over three hundred children who have never visited the country. More needs to be done to combine the advantages of country and city life. With poorer schools and shorter terms, and with far less apparatus, but under the kindly and invigorating influences of rural scenes and employments, the country sends forth at least its full share to the professions and into the posts of most commanding influence in the Commonwealth and country. Some of the little rural districts and small hill towns have been exceedingly fertile in the richest treasures of intellect.—  
*B. G. Northrop.*



## School Officers' Department.

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*The articles included in this Department have special interest to school officers. Those not otherwise credited, are prepared by the editor.*

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### OFFICIAL COMMUNICATIONS.

We are again disappointed in not receiving an official communication from the School Commissioner. He informs us that while important questions have arisen, he has not been able to command the time to prepare official answers for publication. The correspondence of the office has thus far largely required his attention.

The provisions of the school law are very imperfectly understood by the great majority of teachers and school officers, and anything like uniformity or efficiency in the administration of the system, is only to be secured by disseminating "line upon line and precept upon precept." It is for this reason that this journal has been made the official organ of the School Department. It affords a channel of official communication, and although it is read by comparatively a small number of the school officers of the State, it reaches a thousand fold more of them than a letter sent to a single person through the post-office. We need not add that we shall always welcome any communication the Commissioner may find time to prepare for our readers.

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### SCHOOL BOOKS.

We have taken considerable pains to ascertain to what extent there is a uniformity in the text-books used in the schools of the country districts of the State. The result may be briefly stated: In reading and arithmetic there is a general uniformity—McGuffey's and Ray's books being very generally used. In the other branches there is a great diversity of books in use, to the evident serious injury of the schools. In many instances three, and even more, different kinds of text-books are used by pupils in the same school and in the same classes. Teachers state that boards of education have very generally failed to take any action upon the subject, and that the pupils bring to school such books as they may possess or the teacher may be able to induce them to purchase. In some instances boards have adopted specified series of books, but have taken no measures to secure their uniform use, thus adding to, instead of removing, the evil. This is specially true whenever new books have been adopted without excluding the old books already in use. We also learn that it is no unusual thing for teachers to introduce new books, even when only a part of their pupils can be induced to procure them.

We are satisfied that a multiplicity of text-books is one of the most serious

evils that now cripple our country schools. It multiplies classes beyond the ability of the teachers to instruct, and is otherwise a source of great inconvenience and annoyance. The teachers of ungraded schools have more classes than they can properly attend to, even when there is a uniformity of text-books, and it is the height of folly to permit these disadvantages to be multiplied by the use of two or more series of books in the same branch of study. There is not a school district in the State in which it would not be true *economy* for the board of education to remove unauthorized books by giving to the pupils possessing them the books adopted and in general use. The increased efficiency of the school would more than make good the expenditure, taking the teacher's wages as the basis of the estimate. And certainly there is no parent that can *afford* to send his child to school unprovided with the necessary books. It costs something to clothe and otherwise provide for children while attending school. To permit their progress to be destroyed for the want of suitable books, is, to quote an old saw, "to save at the spigot and waste at the bung-hole"—and how many parents are guilty of just this folly!

The removal of this evil is easy, if boards of education will only discharge their plain duty. But how is this duty to be discharged? The answer is found in School Laws, p. 32, opinion 37, as follows:

**SCHOOL-BOOKS.**—Boards of education should permit but *one* series of books in each branch of study to be used in the schools under their control. Two or three different series of readers, geographies, etc., needlessly multiply classes, to the great injury of any school. When the board have adopted a uniform series of school-books to be used in the schools throughout the township, they have full power to compel teachers to comply fully with such action. In case any teacher, by the order of the local directors or of his own accord, refuses to yield compliance, the board may order the school-house (of which they have full custody) to be closed, with a loss of time to the teacher, until their action and regulations are obeyed.

But in case boards of education neglect to take any action upon the subject, is there no remedy? The answer to this inquiry is also found in the School Laws, p. 11, opinion 12, as follows:

**STUDIES AND SCHOOL-BOOKS.**—The authority to determine the studies to be pursued and the text-books to be used in the schools under their control, is vested, by section 17, in the township board of education; but if the board fail to perform this duty, the local directors may take such action as the good of the schools may make necessary. They may secure the use of but *one* series of books in each branch of study by simply forbidding the use of all others *not* adopted by the township board. If any patron is aggrieved, he can appeal to the board of education; but until the board determine what text-books shall be used, the action of the directors must be submitted to. Local directors would not be justified in introducing a new series of books.

In case neither the board of education nor the local directors will protect the schools from this evil, teachers may do much toward avoiding its evil consequences, by classifying their pupils without reference to it, and adopting the text-book most generally used, as a guide in conducting recitations. Clearly, teachers should never increase this evil by introducing new books.

It has been suggested that the best mode of securing a uniformity of text-books is the adoption of a State series. This plan has been tried in several of the States, but, so far as we can learn, with no special advantage. What is wanted is a uniformity of books in each school district, and this may be secured, without forcing the use of the same books throughout the State. More anon.

## SCHOOL-HOUSES.

We would solicit the special attention of parents and guardians in some of our districts to the fact that their school-rooms are poor, dilapidated, inconvenient and unhealthy. Every legitimate consideration urgently demands that better ones be at once provided. Parents take unwearied pains to secure every thing around home for the comfort and health of their dear children. They build good houses, furnish them in the most convenient and luxurious style their means will possibly admit of, sparing no pains to make home a tasteful, convenient, happy and healthful place for their children; yet these same parents, many of them with ample means, send their beloved children to school six hours in a day, five days in a week, for six or eight months in a year, from the fifth or sixth year of age till they are fourteen or sixteen years old, and that, too, in school-rooms quite too small for the most ordinary convenience, too low-posted for good air, with no healthful means of ventilation, with hard, ill-constructed seats and forms, with little or no furnishing for the convenience of the teacher or pupils; where some of the most obvious and most essential laws of health are constantly violated. In such rooms our dearest children spend more hours than they spend waking hours in their quiet and elegant homes, and that, too, at an age when their bodies are in a yielding and formative state, and are more susceptible of receiving the seeds of permanent and mortal disease, than ever after.

There is somewhere a sad defect in parental reasoning that produces and so long allows this state of things. We earnestly solicit special and immediate effort to remove the great and unnecessary evil of poor, shaky, and unhealthy school-houses.—*School Committee, Wilbraham, Mass.*

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## SCHOOL ENTERPRISE.

A correspondent of the *Western Star*, published at Lebanon, Ohio, gives a brief account of school matters in Gunntown district, Warren county. His letter shows what a little enterprise and public spirit can do for our country schools. We copy two paragraphs:

The school yard is large, containing about two acres of land. This gives the scholars ample room for their plays without using the public road, or trespassing on the adjoining fields. How strangely this contrasts with many school lots in this county, which most miserably cramp the plays of the scholars! The boards of education ought to see that some of these districts have more ground. No school ought to have less than an acre, but many, I think, have less than half that amount. These small enclosures are in keeping with former ideas of education, when a young man was thought to be pretty well along when he could cipher through the single rule of three. Some persons could add practice and compound interest.

The people of this district have shown much interest in the school, and a commendable pride in repairing, and in improving and ornamenting the yard. They have cheerfully contributed about one hundred dollars (twenty-one of this being refunded by the board of education) for these purposes, and now have the satisfaction of seeing, besides several other improvements, a good stone walk from the house to the road, and about fifty shade trees living and beginning to spread their branches to invite the repose of the scholars from a summer's sun. These the scholars helped purchase by the proceeds of an exhibition one year ago, and they feel great interest in preserving them as their peculiar property.

## MEETING OF THE STATE BOARD OF EXAMINERS.

The State Board of Examiners will hold a session at Zanesville on July 5th, at the same time with the ensuing meeting of the State Teachers' Association :

Every candidate is required at the beginning of the examination to lay before the Board :—

1. Written vouchers as to his moral character from boards of education or other prominent citizens,—such vouchers extending over *at least the last five years*.

2. Unless personally known to the members of the Board, statements as to his ability to teach and govern a school, signed by the boards of education or others in whose employment he has been. These statements must show in the aggregate *five complete years of experience* as a teacher. He may also furnish with these, similar statements from other competent judges besides the persons in whose employment he has been.

3. Certificates from boards of examiners, diplomas from colleges, and any other evidence of scholarship. The Board wish to see the original papers in every case. They will be returned if desired.

Three grades of certificates will be issued. For the third grade candidates will be examined in the following branches : 1. The common English studies named in the school law. 2. Theory and Practice of Teaching. 3. Physiology. 4. Physical Geography. 5. Botany. 6. Algebra. 7. English Composition. 8. History of the United States.

For the second grade, in addition to the above, in—1. Geometry. 2. Natural Philosophy. 3. Chemistry. 4. Universal History. 5. Constitution of the United States. 6. Rhetoric.

For the first grade, in addition to the foregoing, in—1. Trigonometry. 2. Astronomy. 3. Geology. 4. Mental Philosophy. 5. Moral Science. 6. Logic. 7. Latin. 8. Book-keeping.

An acquaintance with *every* branch will not be required of those candidates who possess eminent professional ability.

Candidates who have given attention to particular branches of learning are requested to make it known.

Though Music and Drawing are not placed in the schedule, skill in teaching these arts is regarded as a very desirable qualification in a teacher.

The Board of Examiners would invite the attention of the teachers of the State to this examination, and their hearty co-operation in carrying out the design for which the Board was created, is most earnestly desired.

WM. MITCHELL,  
Sec'y of the Board.

A SUBSCRIBER ("L. P.") submits to the editor three questions, and wishes them answered in the MONTHLY. By referring to the new edition of School Laws, opinions 41, 38 (rule 2), and 77, respectively, the information sought for may be found.

## Editorial Department.

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### THE MEETING AT ZANESVILLE.

We take pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to the announcement of the meeting of the State Association at Zanesville, found in another place. There are encouraging indications of a large attendance. We learn that a large number of the teachers of Cincinnati will be present, and we hope they may be joined in their excursion by delegations from the numerous cities and towns in the central and southern portions of the State, and that they may meet at Zanesville hundreds of "up-north" representatives, ready to strike hands with them in a mighty onward movement against the hosts of ignorance and old-fogysm.

A glance at the topics announced for discussion will show that they are of vital importance. We are glad to see Col. Fisher announced for the annual address. The adoption of a new and liberal schedule of salaries by the School Board of Cincinnati, is largely due to his efforts as chairman of the committee on salaries, and we are sure that the teachers of the State will like to see and hear a man who has so just an appreciation of the value of their services.

The good people of Zanesville have put out the "latch string," and the railroad companies are ready "to chalk hats." We pity the superintendent, teacher, or school officer, that does not intend to be there. We shall not keep him company.

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### NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

The passage of the bill establishing a National Bureau of Education by the House of Representatives, will take most of the friends of the measure by surprise. Even the most sanguine had begun to fear that Congress was too much absorbed in the consideration of extraordinary political questions to give the subject attention at the present session. But the triumph has been won in the House—thanks to the zealous efforts of the able committee having the bill in charge—and may be won in the Senate if the educators of the country will lend a helping hand. A failure to understand the scope and character of the measure will be the chief source of opposition to it, and this will arise from a failure on the part of Senators to examine the subject, owing to the pressure of other important duties. Their attention must be called to the subject by the prominent educators of the several States. We feel confident that this is all that is needed to secure the early passage of the bill.

We have been struck with the fact that, thus far, the opposition to the pro-

posed bureau has arisen from an entire misconception of its function and powers. The debate in the House clearly shows this. Messrs. Rogers, Pike, and Randall, who opposed the measure, spoke of it as a centralization of power, as an interference with education in the States, or as a scheme to establish a national system of education, etc. Mr. Randall caused a letter to be read from Frederick A. Packard, of Girard College, Philadelphia, in which the bureau is referred to and opposed as "a magnificent scheme of national instruction." We were not surprised after this exhibition of ignorance to discover that the letter was an excerpt from the pages of "The Daily Public School."

Now the truth is the bill before Congress is not open to either of the above objections. It does not give to the bureau a particle of executive control over the educational systems of the several States, nor has it power to interfere in the least with local school authorities. It simply proposes to establish a bureau to collect, weigh, and disseminate such information as may assist and stimulate States and communities to organize and perfect efficient school systems. Its function is that of a helper and quickener in school efforts—it is to be a radiator of educational light and knowledge.

The following are the provisions of the bill as it passed the House:

**SECTION 1.** That there shall be established at the city of Washington a department of education, for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

**SEC. 2.** That there shall be appointed by the President, by the advice and consent of the Senate, a commissioner of education, who shall be entrusted with the management of the department herein established, and who shall receive a salary of \$4,000 per annum, and who shall have authority to appoint one chief clerk of his department, who shall receive a salary of \$2,000 per annum; one clerk who shall receive a salary of \$1,800 per annum; and one clerk who shall receive a salary of \$1,000 per annum, which said clerks shall be subject to the appointing and removing power of the commissioner of education.

**SEC. 3.** That it shall be the duty of the commissioner of education to present, annually, to Congress, a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which this department is established. In the first report made by the commissioner of education under this act, there shall be presented a statement of the several grants of land made by Congress to promote education, and the manner in which these several tracts have been managed.

**SEC. 4.** That the commissioner of public buildings is hereby authorized and directed to furnish proper offices for the use of the department herein established.

But we desire to refer briefly to the speeches made in support of this important measure. The bill was taken up on the 9th of June, but the number of private bills waiting to be disposed of, allowed only a brief time for its consideration. Mr. Moulton, of Illinois, opened the discussion, setting forth very clearly and ably the scope and object of the bill, and the results which the establishment of the bureau would accomplish.

He was followed by General Banks, of Massachusetts, who, in a few clear sentences, completely answered the objections that had been raised against the bill, and added:

Now, sir, I ask the attention of the House for a moment to the importance of this measure at this time. I am reluctant to refer to my own experience, but I think the

importance of the bill justifies it. I have passed the greater part of the time for the past four or five years in the insurgent States. I have seen much of the elements of life that control opinions in that part of this country, and I am sorry to say that I have formed very strong convictions as to what is necessary in the reconstruction of the Government and the restoration of that amity and comity of feeling which must exist between the people of the different States and the General Government in order to promote that Union we all so much desire.

I do not underestimate, I am sure, the importance of legislative measures, or constitutional amendments, or any action of Congress or the executive department of the Government in that respect; yet I think I am justified in saying that any or all of these measures are but initiatory; they do not complete the work of reform; they do not perform the duty of restoration. Those results must depend upon other elements of power, which may flow from but which are not embraced in the statutory or constitutional measures to which we have given so much consideration.

The true source of power to which we must look for the ultimate restoration of perfect peace, the restoration of the Government in a form as perfect as before the war, in a more perfect form, even, than it has before existed, is the education of the people. Of course I do not mean to say that we must wait until the people shall be educated. On the contrary, we must begin immediately in this duty. But the completion of the work requires that education shall be considered as among the first and most important elements of this work. And could information be collected and spread before the country of the almost marvelous results of education in the last three or four years in the insurgent States upon that class of people who most need the attention and protection of the Government, I am sure the House with almost entire unanimity would give its approval to any measure tending to that end.

I believe, sir, and I wish to express my conviction as it really exists, that it is impossible so far to reform opinion, so far to change the basis of political society, as to secure a perfect restoration of the principles of our Government without giving efficiency to this fundamental element of social, of public, and of individual power. I trust, sir, that in this view alone, whether gentlemen of the House have made up their minds to pass this measure or not, they will give it serious consideration, as a measure equally important, if not more important in its final results, than any which may proceed from the committee on reconstruction, honorable and thorough and intelligent as that committee has been in the performance of its duties, and essentially necessary for the Government as are the measures which that committee has reported.

Brief speeches (already alluded to) were made in opposition to the bill by Mr. Pike, of Maine, and Mr. Randall, of Pennsylvania. Mr. Pike's remarks called out Governor Boutwell, of Massachusetts, who, in a few well-chosen illustrations, showed the expediency and importance of the measure.

General Garfield, of Ohio, who had charge of the bill, closed the debate in an able speech, which, unfortunately, was cut short by the fall of the Speaker's hammer. We have reserved his masterly statement of the magnitude of the educational interests of the country for a future issue. We have space now for but two paragraphs:

But we do propose this: that we shall use that power, so effective in this country, the power of letting in light on subjects, and holding them up to the verdict of public opinion. If it could be published annually from this Capitol, if it could go out through every district of the country that there were States in this Union that had no system of common schools, and if their records could be placed beside the records of such States as Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and other States that have a common-school system, the very light shining upon them would rouse up their energies and compel them to educate their children. It would shame out of their delinquency all the delinquent States of this country.

Mr. Speaker, if I were called upon to-day to point to that in my own State of which I am most proud, I would not point to any of the flaming lines of our military record, to the heroic men and the brilliant officers we have given to this contest; I would not point to any of our leading men of the past or the present, as the trophies of our State; but I would point to the common schools of Ohio; I would point to the honorable fact that in the great struggle of five years through which we have just passed, the State of Ohio has expended \$12,000,000 for the support of her public schools. I do not include in this the amount expended upon our higher institutions

of learning. I would point to the fact that fifty-two per cent. of the taxation of Ohio for the last five years, aside from the war tax and the tax for the payment of the public debt, has been for the support of her schools. I would point to the schools of Cincinnati, of Cleveland, and other cities of the State, if I desired a stranger to see the glory of Ohio. I would point you to the thirteen thousand school-houses and the seven hundred thousand pupils in the schools of Ohio. I would point to the \$3,000,000 she has paid for schools during the last year alone. This is, in my judgment, the proper gauge by which to measure the progress of the States of this Union.

The question was taken on the passage of the bill, and decided in the negative—yeas 59, nays 61, not voting 63; but on the 19th of June, on motion of Mr. Garfield, the vote rejecting the bill was reconsidered, and the bill passed—yeas 80, nays 44.

We have thus put on record the successful initiation of an important educational movement. Few men would have had the courage to undertake to pilot a measure of this kind through the House at the present exciting session of Congress. General Garfield deserves, and will receive, the thanks of the friends of education throughout the country.

### ORAL LESSONS IN ARITHMETIC.

The practice afforded by the series of exercises sketched in the June number, will be found insufficient to secure necessary expertness in the combination of small numbers. The apt teacher will find, however, little difficulty in arranging additional exercises, and this, too, without placing a text-book in the hands of the pupils.

#### SLATE AND BLACK-BOARD EXERCISES.

The following slate and black-board exercises to be added from left to right and right to left, will be found simple and convenient. The sign of addition is omitted:

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
1	3	1	1	3	1	3	3	1	3	1	1	3	1	3
2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2
1	2	3	2	1	3	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	2	1
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
1	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1
2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2
2	1	4	1	2	4	2	2	4	1	1	2	4	2	4
3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	1	4	4	1	1	3	4	3	1	4	3	1	4	3
3	4	2	4	3	2	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	2

Etc.

Each row of figures constitutes a separate exercise, and is to be written upon the black-board by the teacher and copied by the pupils on their slates for study.



The first is an exercise in adding ones; the second in adding twos; the third in adding twos commencing with one; the fourth in adding twos and ones promiscuously arranged; the fifth in adding threes; the sixth in adding threes commencing with one; the seventh in adding threes and ones promiscuously arranged; the eighth in adding threes commencing with two; the ninth in adding threes and twos promiscuously arranged; the tenth in adding threes, twos, and ones, promiscuously arranged; and so on. The class should be kept upon each exercise until great rapidity and accuracy are secured.

#### MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION.

The idea of multiplication is readily comprehended by children who are familiar with addition. The essential thing in teaching the subject is to commence with small numbers, say one, two, three, four, and five, and to make plain the process of taking each a given number of times, not exceeding five, by repeating or multiplying corresponding groups of objects. One pencil taken once, two pencils taken once, three pencils taken once, etc., will lead the child to see that once any number is the number itself. Any group of objects taken twice will show what is meant by twice a given number. The teacher may, for example, place the following upon the black-board:

O	O O	O O O	O O O O	O O O O O
O	O O	O O O	O O O O	O O O O O

Covering the lower line, and pointing to the successive groups in the first line, he may ask, How many times have I made one O? The answers will be, one time, two times, three times, etc. Pointing as before, he may ask, Once one O is how many? Once two O's is how many? Once three O's is how many? etc.

Uncovering the lower line, and pointing to the first letter O in each line, he may ask, How many times have I made the letter O? Two times. Then twice one O are how many O's? Two O's. Pointing to the groups containing two each, he may ask, How many times have I made two O's? Two times. Twice two O's are how many O's? Four O's. Twice three O's are how many O's? Six O's. Twice four O's are how many O's? Eight O's. Twice five O's are how many O's? Ten O's.

Three times one, three times two, etc., may be illustrated in like manner, thus:

O	O O	O O O	O O O O	O O O O O
O	O O	O O O	O O O O	O O O O O
O	O O	O O O	O O O O	O O O O O

The above serve only as illustrations of the plan. The teacher may use blocks, marbles, beans, etc. The numeral frame will be found convenient and useful. But these illustrations must not be given solely by the teacher. The pupils must be required to *work out* the multiplication table upon their slates. They must be taught to reach the fact that twice two are four, twice three are six, etc., by means of groups of marks, or objects, made or arranged by *their own hands*. It is a great mistake for the teacher to give a few illustrations of

multiplication, and then require his pupils to commit to memory the abstract table.

The idea of division may be developed by dividing groups of objects into smaller groups of a given size. How many times are two beans contained in eight beans? The pupil counts out eight beans, and divides them into groups of two each, or he makes eight lines upon his slate, and divides them into groups, thus: II, II, II, II. By commencing with small numbers, children may easily be taught to work out the division table.

We believe that the above method of teaching the elementary processes of arithmetic to little children, is both philosophical and practical. In his tenth semi-annual report, published in March, 1865, Mr. Philbrick, Supt of the public schools of Boston, thus refers to this subject:

. I begin with arithmetic. I regret to say that I find some of the teachers in the Primary Schools pursuing a course in regard to this branch which is, in my judgment, extremely objectionable. It consists in teaching exclusively, or almost exclusively, the abstract tables of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, and ignoring practical questions and exercises on concrete numbers, which should form the basis of arithmetical instruction. Instead of teaching the excellent little book which has been provided, as it was designed to be taught, and as it should be taught, in some schools it is almost wholly neglected, with the exception of two or three pages of tables at the end, which were intended for occasional use in reviewing. This course of proceeding involves an enormous waste of time and strength. The pupil is kept repeating sounds which mean nothing to him. He makes no progress whatever in real, useful knowledge of the nature and relations of numbers, or of the operations which belong to them. By dint of hard drilling, pupils who have good memories may, in this way, be brought to repeat the tables with fluency. This would be an acquisition of real value, if reached in the right way, but, learned by rote, and not preceded by the gradual development of numerical ideas, through operations on small concrete numbers, I can not but regard it as something worse than useless. I doubt if any Primary teacher really believes that this is the proper mode of proceeding. \*

\* \* By reference to the programme of studies for the Primary Schools, it will be seen that *practical questions* are required at each step, and that the development of numerical ideas, by the use of real objects, including the numeral frame, is especially enjoined.

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## TWO VOICES.

A few weeks since *The Nation* advocated the creation of a national bureau of education with authority to enforce the maintenance of a public school system upon every State. It pronounced the bill introduced by General Garfield, which has since passed the House, "not a strong measure" because it did not clothe the bureau with such executive control and authority. It now holds that an educational bureau can have, "under the existing provisions of the Constitution, no other function than the collection and publication of educational statistics and information," and opposes the establishment of a bureau for these purposes on the ground that "cotton, suffrage, and education may be safely left to take care of themselves." We confess that if *The Nation* has any settled opinions, we do not know what they are.—LATER.—*The Nation* (June 21) records the passage of the bill by the House, and gives it a *quasi* approval.

## ANNUAL MEETING OF THE OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The next annual meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association will be held in Zanesville, commencing on Tuesday evening, July 3d. The opening address will be delivered by Prof. Eli T. Tappan, of Athens, President of the Association, and the annual address by Col. S. S. Fisher, of Cincinnati.

A paper on School Examinations will be read by R. W. Stevenson, Sup't Schools, Norwalk, and another on County School Superintendents by Wm. Mitchell, Sup't Schools, Columbus. Other important papers have been provided for.

Among the topics of discussion, the following will come before the Association for its consideration :

1st. Graded Schools in Rural Districts ; How far have they been tried, and how have they succeeded when the trial has been made? What prevents the further adoption of the plan?

2d. The feasibility of a General Plan for the Education and Training of Teachers, embracing a Normal School, Judicial-District and County Institutes.

3d. Whether it is advisable for Teachers to labor for the establishment of County Superintendencies.

4th. Whether English Grammar is now generally taught so as to be of any considerable advantage to the student.

5th. Whether the study of Higher Arithmetic ought not to give way to the study of Algebra and Geometry, and, as far as possible, of other branches of the Higher Mathematics.

6th. Whether the true theory of Object Teaching is the one which is now pressed upon the attention of American Teachers.

Teachers are earnestly requested to write out and present to the Association short papers on these topics, which shall not occupy more than ten or twelve minutes in the reading, and prepare themselves to present in the discussions which may arise, as succinctly as possible, their maturest thoughts in regard to the same.

Lady teachers attending the meeting will receive the hospitalities of the citizens ; and the local committee asks for one evening of the session for a social entertainment.

The members of the Association who pay full fare in going to the convention over the following railroads, will be returned free : Little Miami, Columbus and Xenia ; Dayton and Western ; Central Ohio ; Pittsburg, Columbus and Cincinnati ; Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati ; Atlantic and Great Western ; Cincinnati and Zanesville ; Columbus and Indianapolis Central ; Marietta and Cincinnati ; and Sandusky, Mansfield and Newark. The agents of the following roads have declined to make the arrangement : Pittsburg, Ft. Wayne and Chicago ; Cleveland and Pittsburg ; and Sandusky, Dayton and Cincinnati. The following have not yet (June 20th) answered the application of the President : Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton ; Dayton and Michigan ; Cleveland and Toledo ; Cleveland, Painesville and Ashtabula ; and Dayton and Union.

Steamboats on the Muskingum river will wait at Marietta, on Monday and on Tuesday morning, till the western train arrives from Cincinnati ; and members who pay full fare in going on these boats, will return free.

(SIGNED)

ANDREW J. RICKOFF,

*Chairman of Executive Committee.*

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**SALARIES OF CINCINNATI TEACHERS.**—The School Board of Cincinnati recently adopted, by an almost unanimous vote, the following liberal schedule of salaries to take effect at the commencement of the next school year:

*Intermediate Schools.*—Principals shall be appointed at \$1,800 per annum, which sum shall be increased \$100 annually, until the annual salary shall amount to \$2,100: Provided, however, that no teachers in the employ of the Board, if appointed Principal of an Intermediate School, shall thereby suffer any reduction of salary. First male assistants and first German assistants shall be appointed at \$1,200 per annum, which sum shall be increased \$100 annually, until the annual salary shall amount to \$1,500. Female assistants shall be appointed at \$800 per annum, which sum shall be increased \$50 annually, until the annual salary shall amount to \$800.

*District Schools.*—Principals shall be appointed at \$1,600 per annum, which sum shall be increased \$100 annually, until the annual salary shall amount to \$1,900. First male assistants and first German assistants shall be appointed at \$1,000 per annum, which sum shall be increased \$100 annually, until the annual salary shall amount to \$1,300. Female assistants shall be appointed at \$400 per annum, which sum shall be increased annually \$50, until the annual salary shall amount to \$700.

There shall be four music masters, at a salary not exceeding \$1,500 per annum, each; two drawing teachers, at a salary of \$800 per annum, each, which sum shall be increased annually until the annual salary shall amount to \$900; one male teacher of gymnastics, at a salary not exceeding \$1,500 per annum, and one female assistant, who shall instruct the girls in grades D, E, and F, at a salary of \$800 per annum.

The salaries of teachers, now in the employ of the Board, for the next school year, shall be regulated by the number of years' experience of such teachers, in the same or equivalent position in regularly graded schools of good standing, counting the first year at the lowest salary named, and adding the annual increase for each year's experience, provided that no experience of less than half of a year shall be counted, and provided, that all teachers to be hereafter appointed shall begin with the lowest rate of salary, unless the Board shall upon the recommendation of the committee on salaries, make special exception in the case of an experienced teacher. All substitutes shall be paid at the lowest rate of salary named for the position.

A comparison of this schedule with the salaries paid by the leading cities of the country, shows that Cincinnati leads all in the wages paid female teachers. This will enable the School Board to go into the market and employ teachers of the very highest qualifications, thus not only maintaining the great excellence of the schools of the city, but securing for them an undoubted pre-eminence.

The salaries of the officers of the Board are to be as follows: Superintendent, \$2,500; clerk, he employing and paying assistant clerk or messenger and janitor, \$2,500; superintendent of buildings, \$2,500; librarian, \$1,200; assistant librarians, not exceeding \$650 and \$350.

**MR. UNION COLLEGE.**—An invitation to deliver a lecture before the students of this institution afforded us recently an opportunity of paying it a brief visit, and learning something of its prosperity and prospects. The number of students in attendance is equal to the boarding capacity of the village—several seeking admission having failed to find boarding places. A large boarding hall is in process of erection, and is expected to be completed before the opening of the fall term. Everything we saw indicated a degree of prosperity full of promise and encouragement. We were assured by several of the trustees that the movement to raise an endowment fund would unquestionably be crowned with success—that over \$80,000 had already been secured with a fair prospect of reaching \$150,000 before the close of the year. Five soliciting agents are now in the field. The history of this institution shows a steady and substantial growth, secured through the unflinching zeal and untiring energy of the men in charge of it.

At the close of the chapel exercises on the morning after our lecture, the faculty and students presented us with a list of fifty-three subscribers to the MONTHLY, which is the largest list we have ever received from a single institution. We commend this example to other institutions largely attended by students expecting to be teachers.

**THE HIGH SCHOOL QUESTION.**—New Haven has just concluded a "High School Discussion"—a local controversy involving principles of wide application. Such controversies seem to come to all our growing towns very much as the scarlet-fever and the whooping-cough come to children. Escape is the exception. The discussion in the City of Elms, after various side issues were thrown out, seems to have turned on this radical question: Is the system of public schools maintained as a charity "for the poor and needy," or is it an institution "for the good of all" irrespective of classes—i. e., for the benefit of the town, the State, and the community? If the former view had prevailed, the high school would have been abolished; if the latter prevailed, the school was to be maintained. The popular verdict was given in the most emphatic manner in favor of "schools for all," and the high school was, therefore, sustained, as an essential part of a vigorous and efficient system of public instruction.—*The Nation*.

**AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.**—The thirty-seventh annual meeting of the American Institute of Instruction will be held in Burlington, Vt., on the 7th, 8th, and 9th days of August, 1866. The subjects announced for discussion are: 1. "Our schools—their Influence on Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, Civil Polity and Morality." 2. "Advantages of Graded Schools." 3. "Education and Reconstruction." 4. "Place of the Sciences and the Classics in a Liberal Education." Lectures will be given by Moses T. Brown, of Cincinnati, O.; Prof. W. S. Tyler, of Amherst College; Prof. S. S. Greene, of Brown University, and Milo C. Stebbins, of Springfield, Mass. Addresses will also be given by the President of the Institute, B. G. Northrop, and by Governor Bullock, of Vermont.

**MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.**—The National Association of School Superintendents, B. G. Northrop, of Massachusetts, President, will meet at Indianapolis, Ind., on the 13th of August; the American Normal School Association, Richard Edwards, of Illinois, President, meets in the same place on the 14th of August; and the National Teachers' Association, J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, President, in the same place on the 15th, 16th, and 17th of August. A large attendance at these meetings is anticipated.

**SALEM HIGH SCHOOL.**—We witnessed the commencement exercises of this school, which occurred on the 7th of June, and had the pleasure of congratulating the citizens on the evidence presented of its successful management and high character. The graduating class, the second in the history of the school, consisted of three young ladies and one young gentleman, all of whom acquitted themselves with credit. The diplomas were conferred, with appropriate remarks, by Mr. W. D. Henkle, superintendent of the public schools, after which an address, alluded to elsewhere, was delivered by the writer. A fine concert of vocal and instrumental music was given in the evening. The fact that the occasion marked the close of Mr. Mendenhall's and Miss Prunty's connection with the school, added special interest to the exercises. Under their administration the Salem High School has taken high rank, and is justly the pride of the city. The retiring teachers carry with them elegant and valuable presents as tokens of the high regard of their pupils.

**"EXPERIENCES."**—We would call the attention of primary teachers to the article in this number having this modest title. It is an admirable record of school-life experience, and will be found exceedingly suggestive.

**SCHOOL OFFICERS' DEPARTMENT.**—The interest manifested by school officers in the *MONTHLY* has induced us to set apart a few pages each month for their more special benefit. We solicit from them and others brief contributions.

**HISTORY.**—At a recent meeting of the teachers of Boston, Mass., and vicinity, the subject of teaching history was discussed. A great diversity of opinion and practice was revealed. We should like to see this subject discussed at the meeting of our State Association at Zanesville.

**OBERLIN COLLEGE.**—The trustees and prudential committee have decided to make a vigorous effort to raise \$150,000 for an endowment and for new college buildings. The present income of the institution is insufficient to meet the current expenses, and the large and increasing attendance of students calls for enlarged accommodations. Rev. E. H. Fairchild, principal of the preparatory department, has been appointed general financial agent.

**STATE BOARD.**—Commissioner Norris has appointed Dr. Theo. Sterling, of Cleveland, and Capt. Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, members of the State Board of Examiners. The third member is not yet appointed. We are not informed why Messrs. Cowdery, Tappan, and Harvey retire from the Board. The new appointees are eminent teachers.

**THE FISK FREE SCHOOL** for colored children, at Nashville, Tenn., closed its first term June 15th. A large number of citizens crowded the chapel to witness the examination, many of whom were astonished at the progress made by the pupils. The school is supported by the Western Freedmen's Commission of Cincinnati and the American Missionary Association of New York. It is conducted by fifteen excellent teachers, and is attended by about one thousand pupils. It is said that old Tennesseans are feeling a little solicitude for what is known down South as "white trash."

**DAYTON.**—H. H. Vail, principal of the Second District School, has resigned to accept a position in the publishing house of Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle, Cincinnati, and A. P. Morgan, of the Dayton High School, goes to Wisconsin as an agent for the same house. O. S. Cook, of Illinois, occupies the position made vacant by Mr. Vail's resignation, and at our last advices he had not accepted an agency.—The board of county school examiners announce a teachers' institute to be held in Dayton commencing July 23d, and continuing at the pleasure of the institute, say four weeks.

**FAIRFIELD COUNTY.**—The third normal institute of this county will be held at Lancaster, commencing July 9th, and continuing five weeks, to be followed by a county teachers' institute continuing one week. Rev. J. F. Reinmund, J. C. Harper, and J. C. Hartzler will constitute the board of instructors—a guaranty that the institute will be a success.

**FRAME'S SCHOOL REGISTER.**—This register is prepared in accordance with the official forms and instructions contained in the new edition of *School Laws*, and will be found well adapted for use in common schools. It was compiled by Mr. C. Frame, principal of one of the ward schools of Zanesville, and is published by Hugh Dunne of the same city.

**THE LITTLE CORPORAL.**—Our little folks are delighted with this sparkling and instructive paper. It fights the good fight most gallantly.

THE

# OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

*A Journal of School and Home Education.*

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## PROCEEDINGS OF THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

TUESDAY EVENING.

The Association met in the Second Street Methodist Episcopal Church, Zanesville, at 8 o'clock P. M., July 3d, 1866, and was called to order by the President, Eli T. Tappan, of Athens.

The exercises of the evening were opened with prayer by the Rev. D. D. Mather, of Zanesville.

On motion of W. D. Henkle, of Salem, Messrs. U. T. Curran, of Glendale, A. Armstrong, of Ripley, G. B. Brown, of Toledo, and G. A. Carnahan, of Cincinnati, were appointed assistant Secretaries.

Mr. A. T. Wiles, of Zanesville, in behalf of the teachers and citizens of Zanesville, delivered an address of welcome to the members of the Association, to which the President responded.

The Inaugural Address was delivered by the President, Mr. E. T. Tappan.

Mr. Wm. E. Crosby, of Cincinnati, moved that those portions of the address relating to High Schools, be referred to a committee. Carried.

Mr. E. E. White then announced the order of business for Wednesday.

Mr. Hancock moved that provision be made in the programme for an appropriate "celebration of the Fourth," between the hours of 11 o'clock and 12. Carried.

The Association adjourned to meet at 8½ o'clock, Wednesday A. M.

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WEDNESDAY.—MORNING SESSION.

Prayer was offered by Rev. J. F. Reinmund, of Lancaster.

The President announced as a committee to report on High Schools—Messrs. W. E. Crosby, of Cincinnati, W. H. Young, of Athens, Wm. N. Edwards, of Troy.

Rev. J. F. Reinmund, of Lancaster, presented a report on Object Lessons. (See Report B.) The report was discussed by Messrs. Reinmund, Cowdery, Hancock, Henkle, Edwards, Crosby, Mitchell, White, Venable, and Hartshorn.

At 11 o'clock, the Declaration of Independence was read by Mr. E. E. White. General Leggett, of Zanesville, made a spirited address to the Association, appropriate to the occasion.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 2 o'clock.

A motion to change the time of the annual meeting from July to the holidays, was discussed at some length, but a final vote was deferred until the evening session.

The following resolution offered by Mr. Cowdery, and discussed by Messrs. Cowdery, Rickoff, Norris, Tappan, Hancock, Harvey, Andrews, Crosby, and White, was unanimously adopted :

*Resolved*, That the series of measures suggested by Hon. E. B. White, in his report on Normal Schools to the Legislature at its recent session,—namely, County Teachers' Institutes, District Normal Institutes, and a State Normal School, as essential to give completeness to our Public School System,—meet our most cordial approval, and we most earnestly commend these suggestions and this entire report to the attention of the General Assembly as deserving early, if not first, consideration among the subjects of school legislation.

Mr. Mitchell offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted :

*Resolved*, That the Executive Committee be instructed to prepare and cause to be circulated among the teachers and active friends of education in the several counties of the State, a petition asking for the legislation necessary to the establishment of a State Normal School, and that this be aggregated through the School Commissioner's office, and by him presented to the Legislature at the next session.



Mr. Rickoff offered the following:

*Resolved*, That a committee of three be appointed by the chair to report resolutions expressive of the views of this Association, in regard to the proper place of object lessons in the course of common school studies; and further, as to the claims of object teaching as a method of instruction.

Carried. Committee—Messrs. Rickoff, White, and Andrews.

In accordance with the prescribed order of exercises, the following question was brought before the Association, and discussed by Messrs. Rickoff, Tappan, Andrews, Edwards, Henkle, White, and Hancock: "Ought the study of Higher Arithmetic to give way to the study of Algebra and Geometry, and, as far as possible, of other branches of the Higher Mathematics?"

On motion of Mr. E. E. White, it was voted that Messrs. I. W. Andrews, of Marietta, W. D. Henkle, of Salem, and Eli T. Tappan, of Athens, be appointed a committee to present a report upon the subject just discussed for the consideration of the Association.

It was moved and carried, that a committee of five be appointed on the nomination of officers.

The Association adjourned to meet at 8 o'clock P. M.

#### EVENING SESSION.

The Association convened at 8 o'clock.

The motion to change the time of the annual meeting from July to the week after Christmas, was further discussed, but no vote taken.

Mr. Wiles, in behalf of the citizens of Zanesville, proffered the members of the Association an invitation to attend an entertainment to be held at Market-house Hall on Friday evening.

Col. S. S. Fisher, President of the Cincinnati Board of Education, delivered the customary Annual Address. Subject: "Teaching as a Profession."

Mr. John Ogden, of Nashville, Superintendent of the schools for Freedmen in the States of Tennessee and Kentucky, addressed the Association in reference to the condition and prospects of the cause in which he is directly interested.

On motion, a committee was appointed to express the sentiments of the meeting as to the education of the freedmen. Committee: Messrs. R. W. Stevenson, Wm. Mitchell, Rev. Samuel Findley.

The following committee on nomination of officers was announced: Messrs. L. Harding, of Cincinnati, Wm. N. Edwards, of Troy, I. W. Andrews, of Marietta, O. N. Hartshorn, of Mt. Union, and T. Sterling, of Cleveland.

The Association adjourned.

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#### THURSDAY.—MORNING SESSION.

Prayer was offered by Rev. O. N. Hartshorn.

The motion to change the time of meeting of the Association was lost.

The following committee on the place of meeting was announced: Messrs. Henkle, Cory, and Crosby.

The subject of Graded Schools in Rural Districts was brought forward, and discussed by Messrs. Cowdery, Edwards, White, and Tappan.

Mr. Hartshorn offered the following resolution:

*Resolved*, That we earnestly recommend the organization of a central graded school in each township in accordance with our State school law; as the next best policy, we recommend the union of three or four sub-districts with a graded school.

The resolution was adopted, and the subject referred for further consideration to a committee consisting of Messrs. Cowdery, Edwards, and White.

The question, "Whether English Grammar is now generally taught so as to be of any considerable advantage to the student?" was discussed by Messrs. Venable, Curran, Crosby, and Hancock.

Adjourned to meet at 2 o'clock P. M.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The committee appointed a year ago to memorialize the Legislature in reference to truancy, submitted a report which was accepted, and the committee continued. (See Report A.)

The committee to whom the subject of teaching Higher Arithmetic was referred, submitted the following, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That in the judgment of this Association, the course of study in our public schools would be improved by devoting less time to arithmetic, and by the introduction of algebra and geometry into the the course before the completion of arithmetic.

The committee to whom was referred the subject of the education of the freedmen, submitted the following report, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That this Association has heard with pleasure the statement of facts, touching the present efforts made to educate and elevate the freedmen of the South, as presented by Prof. John Ogden, and that it cordially extends its sympathy and co-operation in these efforts as a part of the great plan for the elevation of all the people.

*Resolved*, That this Association recognizes the education of the freed people of the South as a matter of duty and interest.

*Resolved*, That this Association fully endorses the plan as presented by Prof. Ogden, and commends it to the attention of the educational public in all the States.

R. W. STEVENSON,  
WM. MITCHELL,  
SAM'L FINDLEY.

The committee on the place of holding the next meeting, reported in favor of Columbus. Adopted.

The committee on the nomination of officers for the ensuing year, reported the following:

*For President*—WM. MITCHELL, of Columbus.

*For Vice Presidents*—W. D. HENKLE, of Salem, J. F. REINMUND, of Lancaster, W. E. CROSBY, of Cincinnati.

*For Recording Secretary*—S. A. NORTON, of Cleveland.

*For Corresponding Secretary*—G. B. BROWN, of Toledo.

*For Treasurer*—R. W. STEVENSON, of Norwalk.

*For Auditor*—JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati.

*For Executive Committee*—A. J. RICKOFF, of Cincinnati, M. F. COWDERY, of Sandusky, E. E. WHITE, of Columbus, T. M. STEVENSON, of McConnelsville, H. J. CALDWELL, of Warren.

The committee appointed to consider that portion of the President's address relating to High Schools, submitted the following report, which was adopted with the exception of the last two resolutions which were referred back to the committee for further consideration:

The committee appointed to report on that portion of the President's address referring to High Schools, beg leave to submit the following:

While we will not permit ourselves to say a single word that can be construed as derogatory to the value of Primary and Grammar Schools to the public, yet we feel that there are special reasons for now urging upon the attention of the people the equal importance of the High School, and, therefore,

*Resolved*, That we, as an Association and as individuals, feel bound to use all proper means at our command for the advancement of High School interests.

*Resolved*, That we deprecate, and will strive to counteract, the influences which cause so many young men to leave prematurely the Colleges, the High and Grammar Schools, and even the District School, to enter upon commercial and other pursuits.

*Resolved*, That we will make strenuous efforts to procure from private individuals and the State such pecuniary aid as will help to fix High Schools securely in the public estimation.

*Resolved*, That we request the State Legislature to set apart a portion of the school fund for the purpose of establishing scholarships in Colleges and Universities in good standing in the State,—such scholarships to be awarded to those graduates of the High Schools who have attained the best character, and are most proficient in the studies of a full High School course.

Respectfully,

WM. E. CROSBY,  
W. H. YOUNG,  
Committee.

Prof. Young, of Athens, offered the following resolution :

Believing the school interests of our State strongly demand a generous patronage and earnest support of a State educational journal; and that the *Ohio Educational Monthly* is in every way well worthy such patronage and support by the teachers and other friends of education in Ohio : Therefore,

*Resolved*, That we heartily commend to teachers, especially, and other school friends, our official organ, the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, and bespeak their continued active and earnest co-operation in its support.

Mr. E. E. White offered the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted :

*Resolved*, That this Association fully endorses the bill to establish a National Department of Education recently passed by the House of Representatives and now before the Senate, and that it extends to the Hon. Jas. A. Garfield, of Ohio, the author of the bill, and to all the members of the House who gave the measure an active and earnest support, its hearty thanks.

*Resolved*, That this Association hereby assures the Hon. John A. Norris, Commissioner of Common Schools, that he may rely upon its cordial co-operation in all proper measures to promote the interests of education in the State, and that he has the best wishes of its members for the success of his administration.

The question, "Is it advisable for teachers to labor for the establishment of County Superintendencies?" was brought before the Association, and the discussion opened by Mr. Mitchell, of Columbus, and continued by Messrs. Henkle, Bolton, Cory, Hancock, and Tappan.

Mr. Henkle offered the following resolution, which was adopted :

*Resolved*, That the whole subject of County Supervision, Normal Schools, District and County Institutes, be referred to a committee to memorialize the

Legislature to pass laws establishing these agencies as a part of our school system.

The President appointed the following gentlemen on this committee: Messrs. Henkle, Tappan, Edwards, Mitchell, Cowdery, Andrews, and Hancock.

The following resolution, introduced by the committee on resolutions, was adopted:

*Resolved*, That this Association returns its hearty thanks to its retiring President for the able and impartial manner in which he has presided over its sessions; to its Secretaries for the faithful manner in which they have performed their duties; to the Railroads which have carried its members at reduced rates; to the Captains of the steamers Seckler and Best, on the Muskingum River, for the same favor; to the Trustees of Second Street M. E. Church for its gratuitous use for its meetings; to Col. S. S. Fisher, of Cincinnati, for his able address; and to the teachers and citizens of Zanesville for their generous hospitality, and for their untiring efforts to make the stay of the members among them pleasant as well as profitable.

Mr. Rickoff reported that the Executive Committee had agreed with the publisher of the *Ohio Educational Monthly* to construe the contract between him and the Association to refer to the excess of the subscriptions over the receipts from 1500 subscribers instead of 1500 dollars, in calculating the ten per cent. to be paid to the Association, and asked the approval of the Association. Agreed to.

Mr. Rickoff also stated that of \$92.50 received on this account for the past year, the Executive Committee have subscribed sixty-six dollars for copies of the *Monthly* to be sent to the several County Boards of Examiners of Ohio.

On motion of Mr. Hartshorn, delegates were appointed to attend the meeting of the National Association at Indianapolis. Delegates—Messrs. Hancock, Henkle, Hartshorn, Rickoff, Harding, Tappan, Mitchell, Crosby, Edwards, Curran, Norris, Venable, Reinmund, Mrs. Stone, Miss Becket.

The Doxology was sung, and after a benediction by President Andrews, the Association adjourned.

W. H. VENABLE,  
Secretary.

## REPORTS.

[A.]

## REPORT ON TRUANCY.

Your committee, appointed at the last meeting of the Association to memorialize the Legislature on the subject of Truancy, would respectfully report that they presented to that honorable body, in due time, the following

## MEMORIAL.

*To the Honorable, the General Assembly of the State of Ohio :*

By the earnest request of the Ohio Teachers' Association, at its last meeting, and as its appointed committee for this purpose, we, the undersigned, do most respectfully memorialize your honorable body, and pray that you may take into immediate consideration the propriety of enacting a law that may remove from our State the great evil of truancy.

You are doubtless aware that such a memorial was presented by a similar committee to the last Legislature, and that a bill providing for a truant law was discussed, favorably considered, and almost passed.

At the last meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association, the conviction was generally expressed that truancy was greatly on the increase, notwithstanding the moral means employed throughout the State by teachers and boards of education to counteract it; and that the evil could not be effectually removed without State legislation.

We respectfully ask you to consider the fact that truant laws, providing for truant officers, are now in existence in some of our sister States, and that through the practical efficiency of these laws, truancy has been greatly diminished. The most cheering results of this kind have been effected in the cities of Boston and New York. See, in relation to the former city, "Barnard's Amer. Journal of Education," Vol. I, 1856, pages 460 and 461.

We do not claim that the rural districts and smaller cities are so much in need of truant officers as our larger cities. It is in behalf of our first and second class cities, more especially, that we pray for the passage of some truant law; which law, however, might, with the greatest propriety, be of general application throughout the State. It is stated in a recent address, by a member of the Cincinnati board of education, that there are at present in that city no less than sixteen thousand children who do not attend school regularly; and a large proportion of these are habitual truants, running about the streets, committing depredations, and preparing themselves for a career of crime and misery.

Your memorialists do not ask for *compulsory* education, in the general sense; nor that ordinary truancy be pronounced a crime; but we do respectfully ask to be protected against the evils arising from habitual and persistent truancy, occasioned by the culpable neglect of parents who are wholly indifferent to the education of their children. We claim that the State should become the guardian of the children of *such* parents, take charge of them, and place them where they may be properly cared for and educated, so as to become *useful*, and not *injurious* members of society.

We therefore respectfully suggest that something like the following be enacted :

**SECTION 1.** *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That all boards of education, appointed under the general act, or any special act, for the regulation of the common schools in Ohio, shall be authorized, when they deem it advisable, to appoint one or more truant officers, whose duty it shall be faithfully to look after all truants from school within their respective limits; to use all possible moral means with such children and their parents to secure the regular attendance of these children at school; and, entirely failing in these efforts, to report such cases of habitual and persistent truancy to the president of their respective boards of education, who is hereby authorized to commit, by due civil process, all such cases to the Ohio State Reform School.

**SEC. 2.** Wherever any board of education deems it unnecessary to appoint a truant officer to act within the limits and jurisdiction of said board, the president thereof is nevertheless hereby invested with all the powers and authority conferred on presidents of boards in the first section of this act, in all such cases of habitual and persistent truancy as may come to his knowledge in any other manner.

The above, so far as it goes, is merely an expression of what your memorialists desire in *substance*.

(Signed by Committee as Memorialists.)

The above memorial and suggestions were placed in the hands of the School Committee of the House of Representatives, accompanied by the earnest entreaty of the chairman of this committee with one of that committee, with whom he was intimately acquainted, that immediate and faithful attention be given to the memorial. Our expectations were again disappointed. The memorial was presented by said committee to the House, referred back to the chairman of that committee, and he subsequently reported unfavorably, on the ground that the memorial, with its suggestions, proposed *compulsory* education. And thus ended this important matter, for the second time, in our Legislature; and it remains for this Association to decide what further efforts shall be made in this direction.

Respectfully submitted.

J. F. REINMUND,  
R. W. STEVENSON,  
ELI T. TAPPAN,  
M. F. COWDERY,  
JOHN HANCOCK,

} *Com. on Truancy.*

ZANESVILLE, O., July 3, 1866.

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[ B. ]

## REPORT ON OBJECT LESSONS.

BY REV. J. F. REINMUND, LANCASTER, O.

Upon very short notice, I consented to prepare for this convention a brief, suggestive outline on the subject of Object Lessons, expecting that my imperfect sketch would be followed by an exhaustive discussion, such as the subject itself, and not the sketch, might deserve.

After having prepared what I shall now read, I, for the first time, noticed the exact wording of the topic on Object Teaching, as given in the programme, and found that this paper would not conform to it in all respects. Being then too late to change the plan and form, I concluded to submit what I have as pertinent in substance at least.

*What are Object Lessons?* Conversations about familiar things, conducted by the teacher, and participated in by the pupils. Oral and written lessons, prepared and recited, outside of ordinary book recitations, on real things, real life. A system of practical education, in which pupils are required to observe, reflect, distinguish, arrange, reason, and give description, in reference to things which they see, hear, feel—in short, things which come directly within reach of their capacities and susceptibilities.

For example, a teacher of pupils, six years of age, holds up a lead-pencil, and asks the children to say what they know in regard to its name, size, shape, materials, color, and use; and then further instructs them in regard to the manufacture of the article, and illustrates, in an interesting way, its relative usefulness, taking occasion, soon after, to draw out of the pupils the additional information imparted, noting and correcting the substance and form of their expressions. This is a very simple and easy object lesson, suited to the smallest children in our schools, and conducted orally, with the free use of the black-board, by the teacher.

As the pupils advance in age, the teacher selects more difficult objects, leads the pupils to pass from the mere exercises of perception to that of close observation and careful reflection, in which they not only name the objects, their parts, and their properties, but also begin to compare, separate, and classify them; distinguish as to their size, weight, durability, and value; point out their relative positions and distances; give their history, the country whence they come, and mode of their production or fabrication, and also their relations to us and the impressions they make upon us. Then, at the age of ten or twelve, pupils may engage more extensively in the exercise of reasoning; account for objects; show why they are so named, and why they possess such parts and properties; and make distinctions between the natural and artificial, essential and accidental, absolute and relative. In these lessons on objects, the oral and written are to be combined, as soon as the pupil can write sufficiently well; and increased attention must be given to correct and elegant expressions in composition.

*What are the materials for Object Lessons?* These are abundant and various. All creation must here be laid under contribution. Inanimate objects in nature, animals, plants, man, with his two-fold nature, and all the inventions of his mind and labor of his hands—in short, all nature and art must be employed. Indeed, to a live teacher, the pathway of life, on either side, is literally strewn with materials. An object, an act, a word, an occurrence, an experience, a report—any fact may be made the basis of wholesome inquiry, and useful instruction and discipline. In many cases it is well to have some of these objects present while conducting the exercise; but this is not always necessary, nor practicable. In the one case the senses are chiefly cultivated; in the other, memory and imagination. The selection of objects, and the manner and extent of treatment, must, of course, be determined by the age and capacity of the pupils. A wise and skillful teacher, understanding a subject well, and knowing how to simplify, can use the elements of the most difficult science, in conducting object lessons with the smallest children. Since object and moral lessons are closely connected, conversations on objects may frequently include refer-



ences to the Deity and to a future life. Wherever the subject will admit of it, the moral and spiritual should be combined with the physical and intellectual, so that pupils may not only be made acquainted with processes in nature and mind, and with the business affairs of life, but also be led through nature up to nature's God, and be taught the great lessons of piety.

*To what extent can these Object Lessons be systematized?* There must, of course, be plan and order in all processes of education. Object lessons conducted very irregularly, only when the teacher takes a notion, with little or no preparation on the part of teacher and pupils, never connected with a series of such exercises, always hap-hazard, having neither aim nor spirit—such object lessons are nothing but a burlesque,—will soon go into disuse altogether with those who thus conduct them, and lead to the conclusion, on their part at least, that the whole system of Object Lessons is a failure. On the other hand, to give such importance and place to object lessons as to set aside or neglect book recitations in the different branches, or to suppose that object lessons constitute the principal exercises in all grades and for all ages of children—to make a sort of hobby-horse of the system, and wholly ignore the good old paths,—is an equally grave error, that abuses the system, and uses as an end what should better be regarded a means to an ultimate end. Surely there is a middle path here. The system of Object Lessons, its nature and design, should be studied, before a practical use of it be attempted. Its introduction into a school should be gradual; the inexperienced teacher must not undertake too much. At first a systematized book on the subject, such as Sheldon's, Calkin's, or Willson's, should serve as a directory, along with good charts and pictures. While these will always be useful, yet the experienced teacher will gradually supply and systematize his own materials, and adapt them to the pupils in hand. In the primary departments of graded schools distinct object lessons should be conducted more frequently than in the higher grades. While here, in the primary departments, all the exercises and instructions must be conducted upon the principles involved in this system, two distinct object lessons a day may be sufficient. In the secondary and intermediate grades, three or four such tasks or distinct exercises a week may do. For the smaller scholars the exercises should be chiefly oral, conversational, and, of course, easy to the children, accompanied by abundant illustrations by the teacher; of the larger scholars carefully written exercises should be required, in addition to the more informal conversation. Each object lesson should be carefully prepared by the teacher. Sometimes such a conversation may be conducted from the spur of the moment, especially when not connected with a series. In most cases it is best to assign a task, giving directions and hints, and requiring a careful mental or written preparation. In conducting the exercise afterward, at least three things are necessary: to draw out of the pupils what they know on the subject, add what may be intelligible and interesting to them, and see that they use the best language they are capable of using. With smaller children we can not avoid the pouring-in process to some extent; drawing out subsequently what we pour in. The more advanced, of course, may be thrown more and more on their own resources. Clearness, brevity and force in matter, and earnestness and unction in manner, should always be secured if possible.

And now, while a systematic course of Object Lessons, such as is now used in the Oswego Primary Schools, and tried to some extent in some of our schools in Ohio, is very useful, if not abused, I earnestly contend that many a teacher may have the spirit, the substance, of this whole matter, without conforming so closely to prescribed forms, and accomplish far more in the very direction to which object lessons point, than many an other who rigidly follows prescribed regulations on this subject. Where a regular routine in object lessons is attempted, there must be system. But along with, or even without a prescribed course, a live and practical teacher can employ the principles of this system in every recitation. And I hold that all our endeavors in the direction of this more recent and excellent plan of education will prove worthless, unless teachers are thereby taught and almost forced by its inherent power to vitalize every recitation, by suitable illustrations drawn from facts, life, nature, and adapted to the capacities of children, and calculated to quicken these in the highest degree. We want, then, the system, the form, the routine (if you wish) in object lessons; but we must have also the grand result—must realize that the system itself is spirit, is life, reaching and vitalizing every exercise of the school-room.

*Upon what principles does this system proceed?* I will simply indicate several fundamental and conditioning principles which object lessons are eminently calculated to illustrate and enforce.

Children possess all the faculties and susceptibilities of adults. It is a false theory that supposes that any of these are dormant at the age when the child begins to go to school. It is already a complete being, and needs training and nourishment in all the parts of its being. There is an order and a degree of development, it is true, in the history of every child; but this does not argue that any of its powers shall be neglected. Even the untutored savage, following nature and Providence as a teacher, very early exhibits the active operation of all his powers; and the precept of the divine word may be regarded very comprehensive, "Train up a child in the way he should go;" and no wonder it is added, "and when he is old, he will not depart from it;" for his whole being, physical, intellectual, and moral, has thus received the right direction. The philosophy of the system of Object Lessons is seen in the fact, that it expressly aims at cultivating in the child curiosity, attention, observation, reflection, memory, association, judgment, reasoning, and language, chiefly in the order here mentioned, and ultimately the conscience and will.

If what has just been said be correct, then all science may be taught already to little children. Their activities must be employed; their susceptibilities must be properly gratified; and all the realms of nature are here needed. Even children will look above, and look below, and look within, and look beyond, on account of the very nature God has given them, and will, at any early age, demand explanations of things obscure, yet real and tangible. Nor have they been left to grope their way in the dark. The moment the child can walk by the stream, through the field, over the hills, and through our thoroughfares, it may find, by a little assistance, satisfactory replies to its earnest questionings, replies suited to its capacities and gratifying to its nature in the highest degree. And thus the elements at least of every department of science and art may be brought within reach of the little child. This is the design of object lessons, to

give the child line upon line, and precept upon precept, here a little and there a little, of the rudiments of all knowledge—first the milk, then the strong meat; first the blade, then the ear, then the full corn in the ear—promoting a full development and harmonious growth from the very beginning of its training.

Whether or not, with all the efforts made by Dr. Hill and others, the true order of studies has been correctly mapped out, certain it is that the system of Object Lessons has served to throw a good deal of light upon that subject, so far as it relates to elementary instruction. It is here seen that all training and instruction must proceed, up to a certain period of the child's history, from the known to the unknown, from the concrete to the abstract, from the simple to the more complex. Every branch of study must be pursued from this standpoint, proceeding from the outer and more obvious to the inner and more recondite, until the mind can grapple with necessary and conditioning principles; then only can the rational take the place of the empirical, as a starting-point; and even then the correctness of our *a priori* principles must still be tested by consciousness and experience. Accordingly, while the elements of all science may be adapted to the comprehension of children by oral instruction, those branches of study should be first pursued by the use of text-books, which address themselves largely to the senses; next, those addressing themselves more to the understanding; finally, those which enter the region of pure reason. First the empirical, then the rational; first phenomena, then their complete interpretation. And since all the sciences and arts are to be pursued from both sides, it is difficult to designate any exact order of studies. To this conclusion we are assisted, at least, by the system of Object Lessons now recommended.

*What are some of the practical advantages of this system?* It leads to a more popular and useful education than mere book routine. While it promotes thorough mental and moral discipline, it also prepares for the practical duties and business affairs of life. Nor need we fear the neglect of the higher forms of logic and rhetoric. Once having entered the temple of science by the only way, the ardent student will not leave it until every recess be explored. Real and living things will meet him at every step of his progress; and while he will ever seek to discover and understand the hidden forces and controlling principles of all things, he will yet be alive to the practical realities and duties that press upon him on all sides.

It is obvious that this system will make more intelligent and live teachers. To use it successfully, they must enlarge their store of information, train themselves to close thinking, and cultivate correct and elegant expression. If they pursue this course, relying more and more on their own powers to originate and plan, they will themselves become the text-book, the apparatus, the model, the living embodiment of all that is needed in the school-room—in the highest sense, a quickening spirit, breathing into each scholar its own thoughts, feelings, and will, and transmuting all into its own image.

And what an advantage such results of this system are to the children! Under the direction of a teacher who thoroughly understands it, every branch of study has a meaning to the smallest child. Dry abstractions are converted into concrete and living forms; processes and principles precede formal rules; remote and hidden things are brought near, and made familiar, until the child has

conscious fellowship and communion with pure idea and living reality. By this system, the tedium of routine is relieved; pupils acquire a fund of useful information, become inquisitive and industrious, and are inspired with the desire to prosecute the higher branches of study, having already learned the elements of these; art as well as science is promoted by the large amount of manipulation required; and language will flow from the children as from a living fountain by means of the building-up process, which this system employs in this department.

Thus teachers and scholars are converted into a cheerful and happy family, busy the live-long day, but never painfully weary, because they tread a pathway strewn with flowers and fruits, and precious stones, and living forms of every kind. And when they leave the silent retreat of the school-room, to breathe the pure air of heaven, they are happy still; for they find "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, good in every thing," and God and duty in all. And when they subsequently mingle with others, amid the social amenities of life, its business interests or spiritual duties, they are not only happy but useful, having been thoroughly drilled in the school of principles and realities.

These are, if I mistake not, some of the features and advantages of the system of Object Lessons now pressed upon the attention of American teachers. It has been successfully used in Germany for many years, tried since in England with equally good results, and already found well adapted to our American schools, as illustrated at Oswego, and some other places. In this country of practical thinkers and doers, this system should attain perfection. We have the experience and writings of others on this subject, and should not fail to inform ourselves in reference to its practical workings, discuss its merits, and thoroughly test its practicability.

## DISCUSSIONS.\*

[JULY 4, 1866.]

## DISCUSSION ON OBJECT TEACHING.

[The paper read by Rev. Mr. Reinmund was followed by a discussion in which the question, "Is the true theory of Object Teaching the one now pressed upon the attention of American teachers?" was specially considered.]

MR. RICKOFF. I rise to ask if this thing is not misnamed. The term "Object Lessons" seems to separate a certain kind of lessons from all the other lessons which are given in the schools. If I am correctly informed—and if I am wrong, there are certain gentlemen here who will give us information on the subject—this is the practice: there are certain lessons called "object lessons" which are set apart for a particular hour, day after day, and are thus made, as it were, one of the branches of study pursued in the school. This is the question to be raised here, whether the whole system of primary teaching should not be an object system of teaching, and whether there should be a separate place given to what are called "object lessons?"

REV. MR. REINMUND. I suppose you expect a reply to that question, but more from those who have paid more attention to this whole matter than myself. It will be remembered that it is stated in my report, that whatever good there may be in a distinct object lesson, it is, in itself, worthless, unless it leads to the vitalizing of every recitation and every branch of study. I think the principal value of this whole system lies in its application to every thing that is done in the school-room. It is a principle of illustration adapted to the capacities of children, and teachers should practically illustrate, just so far as they can, every subject that comes under their treatment in any of the different branches. As for a name I prefer "object teaching;" but I doubt whether any teacher will be really competent in this department, unless they also practice the assigning, preparing and reciting of special lessons from time to time, such as may properly be called "object lessons."

MR. RICKOFF. The question is, whether those lessons—those called specifically "object lessons"—tend to have a bearing on all the others?

REV. MR. REINMUND. Certainly, upon all the others. I believe I made that tolerably plain in the paper. I said object lessons in themselves will prove entirely worthless, unless they give life to the methods of instruction used in the other branches. In all branches, without a single exception, there should be a good deal of oral teaching before the text-books are taken up. I believe every superintendent, principal and teacher can give some degree of system to object

\* Reported by George J. Manson, Phonographer.

lessons. I do not believe that any system enclosed within a book exists, giving every thing there is in object lessons.

MR. COWDERY. I am gratified that this subject is in such definite shape, and that we can look it so squarely in the face. I have watched with a good deal of interest to see where the speaker was going to have object lessons, in what schools they should be used, and to what uses they should be applied, and where he would have such instruction end. In saying that there should be a time set apart for them, I think he is perfectly right. He insists there should be preparation by the teacher—good doctrine I think also. He says that the exercise should be made conversational. That is my philosophy respecting primary teaching, thoroughly conversational or largely so—good doctrine for any recitation. I do not know that it is necessary for us to define names—whether we shall call it "object lessons," or ordinary teaching. The speaker insists that the end or result will be the cultivation of the power of expression—pretty good doctrine, I think, for all the recitations in the school-room. He insists also that there is positive knowledge to be gained—good doctrine I think. That it will be capital discipline and require attention—pretty good doctrine again. I think object lessons break up the monotony of the school-room also. I do not know whether social culture was spoken of, but that is one object. A free conversation between teacher and pupil secures the cultivation of the social nature of the teacher. We have all the diversities and grades of intellect standing on a common platform, and social culture goes on. I do not think there is room for controversy on the subject at all. It strikes me it is very appropriate for all classes, all grades and ages, until we get through with the work of school instruction.

MR. HANCOCK. I judge that Mr. Cowdery does not believe very much in object lessons as applied to other instruction, but, after all, we might dispute a long time about terms—what object lessons are—and I must say I have never been able to learn from the discussions I have listened to in what respect object lessons differ from good teaching, from time immemorial. I do not know that there is anything new in it, at least I have never been able to see it. I must confess being something of a conservative. I have not given as much attention to this subject of object lessons as most of my friends. It seems to me, Mr. President, if we mean by object lessons, lessons brought out from material objects, such as can be found out as ascertained by the senses, and their qualities determined in that way, we shall not have a very wide range. I do not know how my friend here proposes to carry that method of instruction in to all branches of instruction and culture. I can scarcely see how you can carry it into metaphysics, as logic, or into the languages, and the very wide sources of culture. It seems to me that nature itself has set bounds to this method of instruction, and I believe, as I said before, that all good and eminent teachers have, from time immemorial, made use of the very methods that have been laid down by the latter-day defenders of object lessons. I do not suppose that any teacher has ever blindly shut his eyes to the beauties of the universe and the objects in it, and refuse to draw lessons from them. I do not suppose such has been the case at any time, and yet I think there has been a great deal of machine tendency in connection with object lessons. I should think that we are all

agreed on this point, that man can not live forever, and that he can not grind on one subject forever with advantage to his intellect or his moral nature. We must go on ; and it seems to me that at the earlier ages of children object lessons are a valuable means of instruction. So they are very applicable in natural science, since, as a matter of course, we can not get along without objects; we could not have natural science without them. But the idea laid down many years since, that men must have every object brought before them, before they can appreciate its nature or its qualities, or know anything about it, is carrying the matter too far. And I do not believe, however much Pestalozzi may have done in the cause of education, that his method produced the greatest or the ripest scholars. Scholarship is more comprehensive than he brings out in his philosophy; the highest culture resulting in great thoughts is not found in objects—a certain amount of obstruction is offered; and I believe that the sooner we throw off the trammels of objects, and learn to walk alone in the light of reason, the better and the sooner we shall become scholars. It seems to me—though I know this talk may be considered wide of the mark—that no two gentlemen agree yet as to what they mean by object lessons. It seems to be agreed that we shall teach as well as we can by these lessons, but to make it a great hobby all over the world, that we have discovered some great system of education that shall abridge the work and make more thorough scholars than have ever yet been made—making them easier and with more pleasure to themselves—is, I think, a great mistake.

Many years ago, in an article that I wrote,—not very profound,—I stated that the men I observed who had been the most successful in teaching, were men who had no hobbies in their instruction. I think undue prominence to every new system of instruction tends to make it a “hobby,” and men who follow it will unconsciously fall into that circuit.

MR. HENKLE. I think the gentleman is mistaken on the “hobby” question. The only trouble is, that men do not have enough of it. If a man had a dozen or two hobbies he could accomplish something, but if he has only one he rides it to death.

This old subject of object teaching, as it is presented to the teachers of the United States, is embodied, as it seems to me, in a very few words. We have it in academies and colleges of instruction in the natural sciences, and in those institutions where apparatus and experiments accompany the instruction; and there is the greatest amount of success. A boy or girl who sits in a school and studies geology, who never goes out to look at the strata of the earth, will make an exceedingly theoretical geologist. The doctrine is, that a man or woman can only be a geologist who knows something about the objects to which geology relates. Sir John Herschell, in his preliminary discourse on natural philosophy in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, says that a man might think out the whole subject of mathematics in a room, but no man could say that he could think out the subject of natural science. He could not tell whether he could get oil by boring down five thousand or a thousand feet; he would have to try it as many have to their sorrow. [Laughter.] Oil boring is instruction in object lessons. [Renewed laughter.] The chemist must deal with the things he analyzes. The geologist who reads all the theories of the deluge is no geologist—

he must be a practical geologist. This kind of instruction has been adopted more or less in colleges and in scientific schools, and, as far as practicable, ought to be adopted in every school. More than all that: it is not sufficient for a professor to stand behind his desk and perform brilliant experiments inside, and talk about gas, etc. The scholars may get a smell, but there are some gases that have no smell, and a knowledge of them has to be arrived at in some other way. This whole subject of coming directly to the *thing* we are talking about, is what I understand to be object teaching, and that is Pestalozzianism as practiced in the primary schools, and that is what is meant by object teaching. It is simply entering into the inquiry whether or not the facts of science, upon which people may build systems in the future, may not be taught to children; whether there are not a thousand things close to their eye that the children might learn in the lower departments. I appeal to the teachers here who have had anything to do with high schools, if they have not often failed in the use of illustrations because their pupils were found to be ignorant of what was supposed to be well understood.

This system of object lessons might be introduced into the lower schools in reference to facts of nature that would be useful to the student, but the cultivation of the powers of observation is the main thing to be accomplished. And this power of observation extends to all subjects, including moral and mental philosophy. I like the man who makes his mind an object for the time being, and examines it.

[The speaker here related an amusing incident setting forth the value of a knowledge of the fact that a cow has no upper teeth.]

I understand, as I read these books on object lessons, that the main object in the lower schools is to cultivate habits of observation, so that if the subject of natural history and other subjects are pursued, children will have facts on which to build a knowledge of the great principles of nature, and save themselves some unpleasant experiences.

MR. RICKOFF. I asked the question I did for the purpose of drawing out discussion, and I am pleased with the course which it has taken. But I have a good deal of interest in this matter, and have had for several years. It is now eight or nine years ago since this matter was first spoken of, particularly in the State of Ohio. I am not prepared this morning to claim for object lessons the position which they occupy, for the reason that I am yet, though it was so many years ago that the subject was discussed, not satisfied in this matter. But it does seem to me that there is danger of going into extremes in this matter. In the Oswego schools, as I understand it, in the model school in Boston, taught by a lady from Oswego, in the normal school at Toronto, and, perhaps, in other schools, there is a set time given for object lessons, and they are carried on from the beginning to the end of the year's study; but upon what principle the subjects succeed each other, on what theory they are instructed, I have never been able to comprehend. It seems to me that the teachers of this State before using the term "object lessons" should form some idea of the principles that underlie the whole thing—whether it is as some gentlemen claim simply a system of teaching which should be applied to all the subjects taught in the school, or



whether there be room under this head for a specific class of lessons called "object lessons?" Now, sir, probably in the school-room there is some room for miscellaneous lessons called "object lessons." There is an old respectable writer on education, Mr. Page, who speaks of having brought an ear of corn into the school-room, and of his having talked familiarly and interestingly on it to the children and of the interest there was manifested, and how the duller took deeper interest in the progress of their studies and in the business of the school-room from that time forward. He did not call these exercises "object lessons." I do not understand my friend, Mr. Hancock, to say that there is no room for such lessons in the school-room; nor do I understand my friend, Mr. Henkle, to say that there should be a miscellaneous system of lessons given from year to year having no relation to each other. I want to say this: that there must be in this whole matter of object teaching some valid ground; and it is not wise in us, it seems to me, to say of the old methods by which we have raised such men as Webster and Clay, that they are enough for us.

It certainly must be true of teaching as with everything else, that there is progress; that this century is farther advanced than the last one was; that the teachers of to-day are better than those of the times of Lyncurgus. And yet, sir, there is such a thing as extremes in this matter.

I have made these remarks rather with a view to draw out discussion on this subject. I do most earnestly claim, that this thing of object lessons should have the most serious consideration of the teachers of Ohio. It is time they should give it attention. It is receiving attention in the East, and in other portions of the country, and in some places it has assumed a shape that I do not think we shall be willing to adopt here, and it seems to me that the Teachers' Association of this State should discuss these things so that the proper expression may go out in regard to them.

MR. EDWARDS. I am very much gratified, Mr. President, with the essay that was read, and feel that it was truly expressed that every good teacher teaches by object lessons, but still we want something practical—something to go right down to the root of the matter. My experience in teaching is this: that unless I give my teachers something definite and specific, it is not accomplished. I tell my teachers you must do this, and I am going to examine the class on the subject. The question is, how shall we, as superintendents, bring this matter before our teachers, and in what way can we bring it definitely before them so that they will do it—so that when we come to the close of the year we find the thing has been done? It is not enough to say, "All good teaching is by object lessons; you must teach by object lessons, or you are not a good teacher." If we leave it in that shape, nothing will be done, according to my experience. Now my practice (and I wish my brother teachers would give their experience in regard to this thing) is this: We have one teachers' meeting in the school I am connected with every Friday, and have had for fourteen years. The Board permit us to let out school at half-past three o'clock, and we spend two or three hours in practical discussions. I bring up this subject of object lessons before my teachers in this way, and try to get some illustrations, telling them the course that shall be pursued in reference to it. And then I put into their hands the little manual that has been published in Cincinnati, and tell

them to make out a programme of their studies, for every moment of time is to be specifically set down what they shall do, and I require in that programme that once a day at least, they shall teach by object lessons in the primary and secondary departments, and at the close of the year I examine the pupils definitely on those subjects that are brought out in this book, telling them, however, they are not to confine themselves to that book by any means, but I must have something specific. You must give specific instructions to teachers, or I find the thing will not be done. At the close of the year each class is examined, being divided into fourth, third, second and first grades. I require the scholars to write compositions, and I require the teacher to preserve them—to have each composition labeled, and at the close of the year hand them in.

My friend, Mr. Henkle, says, that, in the high school department, scholars should make their own experiments, manufacture oxygen, hydrogen, etc. And in geology "each scholar should go out and examine the strata." That would be a great trouble, since you must take them all over the United States. There are not many localities where you can do that. In the region where I am, there is no stone-quarry within twenty or thirty miles. Shall I give up the study of geology because I can not take my scholars where the strata can be seen? They study astronomy, yet I can not take them to the moon (laughter); but, according to his principle, I must take them there, or astronomy will not be of any use at all. Though unfortunately we are confined to this little globe, we can teach our scholars many facts of astronomy which will be of value to them. There is danger of carrying things too far.

MR. CROSBY. I do not understand that we are discussing object lessons; I do not understand that we are called upon to present our methods of giving object lessons. The question is: "Is the kind of object lessons now pursued approved of?"—not how any one teaches, but is the prevalent method the true one. Now, sir, it will be exceedingly difficult to determine what is the prevalent method; if we could, I think we might ascertain pretty nearly what is understood by object teaching. Last year at Harrisburg, a report was presented to the National Association embodying a system of object teaching. That report set forth the system as adopted, I believe, at Oswego. Within the last few years the city of Cincinnati has set apart a portion of the time for object teaching, just as it sets apart a portion of time for arithmetic, geography, etc., and it requires its teachers to teach object lessons. Now, sir, what do we do? Why, we look about for a manual. We find that the convention which met at Harrisburg adopted a certain system, and so far as I am concerned, and I think so far as the teachers of Cincinnati are concerned, it is agreed that the method adopted at Oswego is the best method. We do not agree, sir, with the gentleman who just spoke, that the manual published in Cincinnati is the best book on object lessons, by any means; we have not adopted it, that is, the teachers of Cincinnati have not. I think the general opinion is, that the method, as set forth in Mr. Lilienthal's book, is not the method that should prevail. I think that is the general understanding. What do we find in Mr. Sheldon's book? We find a system of object teaching arranged under the heads of reading, arithmetic, composition, drawing, etc. Do we find anything new there, sir? Do

we not find the same old subjects that we have been teaching for centuries? Then, are we to understand that the method of object teaching that is to prevail is, that we are to teach according to the method adopted at Oswego. If that is what we are to understand by a system of object teaching, then I very much question whether that is the true method. I must confess that I do not fall in with the idea of object teaching, and I think, so far as the discussion has gone, that the gentlemen who have spoken agree with me in this: that there can be no specialty in object teaching. I do not see how there can be, and I think the "object" men themselves admit it in that they make books on object lessons, and in those books they arrange their method so as to make their teachings apply itself to the subjects taught heretofore. Now, sir, we appeal to no faculty that has not been appealed to for centuries, if that is right. It seems, according to these men, that we must make a specialty of object lessons. This is not the true method.

**MR. COWDERY.** I desire to say that, so far as the report which has been presented here, and so far as the statements made in reference to object teaching are concerned, I endorse and accept all; but I most heartily agree with my friend from Cincinnati, that I should be very sorry to have this Association adopt any particular system set forth by New York, New England, or any other part of the country, in regard to object teaching. We hope to embrace all the good things in object teaching. I endorse the statements of the report, but not object teaching as at present taught.

**CAPT. MITCHELL.** It is more my custom to sit and learn, than to obtrude views of my own upon this Association. Some speakers in this discussion have spoken as though there were some difficulty in determining just where the line lies between object teaching and no object teaching. It appears to me that by an examination of the schools of Ohio, we can settle that question precisely. We have in Ohio a great many schools where the daily exercises consist simply in reciting lessons from books and in teaching the alphabet about twice in the forenoon and twice in the afternoon. Going into the higher branches, we have the lessons recited from the printed questions of the book, and no other question is asked from Monday morning till Friday night. Questions and answers in grammar are as formally laid down as a physician's recipes for mixing pills and powders, and there is not one moment from the beginning of the session to the end of it, (with the exception of an occasional singing exercise,) that is not devoted to the hearing of lessons from the book, the questions being asked as they occur in the book, and answers given in the words of the book; and so it goes on day after day, year in and year out. It appears to me that no one would make such a mistake as to suppose there was any object teaching in this; still I venture to say that three-fourths of the schools are taught in this way—not only in our rural districts, but in our larger districts. There is no mistake in saying that this is not object teaching. Object teaching, as I understand it, is where a specific time is given each day,—where the teacher comes before his school with a previously arranged object lesson, having the plan worked out in his mind,—at least knowing exactly what ideas are to be presented; what new terms are to be introduced and explained; what course of observation is to be taken; what new facts are to be introduced with reference to the specific objects

presented for consideration at that particular time. It appears to me that this is, in itself, object teaching. And, if I am not mistaken, some of us are blind as to exactly how far object teaching extends, and where it finishes, by having a great deal that might be classed under the head of oral instruction—not book instruction on the one hand, and not object teaching on the other. There are a great many facts,—as it were, a great many sets of facts,—which can be presented only in this way, which are not the result of observation, and can not be found in books. It appears to me as though oral instruction forms a dividing line between object teaching on the one hand and mere book instruction on the other.

I agree entirely with the gentleman who presented the report, and most of those who have spoken, respecting the great utility of making object lessons not only a distinctive feature each day, but so much capital to be used in teaching every study at every hour of the day; and I entirely agree with the gentleman that there is not a single study or recitation that can not be benefited by it. And it appears to me that the great benefit resulting from this matter of object teaching is not in itself, but from the fact that it causes a new method of teaching everything else; and in this we should look principally for the benefits resulting from it. One great benefit from object teaching introduced into the State, must be, as named by the gentleman who read the report this morning, its influence on the teacher himself. It makes it necessary for the teacher to prepare himself or herself for the work of each day. Gifted persons may arise on the impulse of the moment, and may go on and give an object lesson successfully impromptu, but it can not be done daily except by special preparation before hand, and in that preparation the teacher's mind is benefited. In Ohio, it appears to me, we are too fast in condemning this system before we know anything about it. What do we—the twenty thousand teachers of Ohio—know about this object teaching? There are teachers in Ohio who have never heard the term used, and there are a great many who, if they used the expression, would not make one effort to know its import or to practice it. We have done something in this direction in our graded schools. We should make haste slowly in this matter. Only when we have statements from those who have used it from year to year, and have made careful comparisons between the schools where object teaching has been made a distinctive feature and where it is not, are we prepared to judge of the success of it.

MR. WHITE. I did not intend this morning to participate in this discussion, but my interest in the subject under consideration, induces me to add a few words to what has been said. I confess that I have hitherto been disappointed in this Association respecting its treatment of this very subject. It has been brought forward at almost every meeting we have had for four years, and yet, until this meeting, it has never had a hearing at all worthy of the professional character of Ohio teachers. There seems to have been a disposition to avoid its discussion. It is certainly unworthy the professional spirit of this Association so to treat a subject that has enlisted the interest of the most eminent teachers in the country. Now, sir, I think we are in no danger of making a hobby of object lessons, or object teaching, in the State of Ohio. On the contrary, I think that we are rather in danger of continuing in the very ruts in which we are now. If

there is a city in the State in which object teaching is made a hobby, I am ignorant of the fact. If any one will name such a city, I will take pains to visit it, and see how the hobby works. I have visited many of the schools of Ohio, and it is my judgment that object teaching instead of being made a hobby, has a very small place; that there has been really but very little earnest thought and attention given to the subject.

Now, I do not understand that object teaching is the same thing as object lessons. Object teaching as the term is now used by our best educators, is a complete system of primary instruction in which certain definite principles are attempted to be realized. These guiding principles are stated very clearly and definitely, and they distinctly separate the system from the ordinary methods of primary teaching. Object teaching is the *fountain* out of which flow, in separate channels, all the branches of primary instruction. One of these channels or branches is object lessons. You may omit these lessons, and still have essentially the system of object teaching. Every lesson, every question, may spring from that one source of object teaching, and yet nothing be done in the direction of object lessons as a separate branch of instruction. I think that object lessons should have a place in primary instruction, but to magnify them and make them the system of object teaching is a great mistake. A course of object lessons designed to train the perceptive faculties, to cultivate habits of observation, etc., is indeed valuable, and in Oswego is provided for in a series of separate exercises, but these object lessons do not constitute the Oswego system of primary instruction—they are only a part of it. I repeat, object teaching is a system of primary instruction which embraces every exercise of the primary school. Object lessons are simply one of the branches or departments of that system—a separate channel.

Object teaching as a system proceeds upon the principle that there is a sequence in the order in which the faculties of the mind are developed, and a kind of knowledge adapted to each stage of its unfolding. It aims to ascertain this sequence and supply this knowledge.

MR. RICKOFF. Why is not object teaching applicable to the latter stages of instruction as well as to the earlier?

MR. WHITE. Simply because in primary instruction the teacher must appeal to the senses of the child more than in advanced instruction. Since the perceptive and observing faculties first awaken to activity, their training must precede the training of the reason. The first knowledge acquired by the child must be sense-knowledge; and hence object teaching is specially applicable to childhood. The principles of object teaching may be and are used in collegiate instruction, especially in teaching the natural sciences, but this is incidental rather than essential—at least, it is not so often essential as in primary instruction. For instance, in giving the little child its first lessons in numbers or arithmetic, the use of objects—visible illustrations—is more essential than in teaching algebra. It is more important that the little child should use actual objects in learning their qualities than that the student in geology should see the strata of the earth, simply because the mind of the little child differs in the relative activity of its faculties from the mind of the adult. The well-known and cardinal principles of object teaching—facts before reasoning; the con-

crete before the abstract; details before generalizations; processes before rules, etc.—are more widely applicable in primary than advanced instruction; and hence the term object teaching is more appropriately used to designate a method of primary than advanced teaching.

It is doubtless true, as Mr. Hancock claims, that good teachers—those who have achieved the highest success—have, from time immemorial, used, to some extent, the principles which are embodied in the beautiful and philosophical system of instruction called object teaching; but does this fact make the system any the less valuable? On the contrary, it seems to me that it is its best argument, its highest recommendation.

We want to realize in this State this one fact: that just so far as we are successful in embodying the principles of object teaching in our methods of primary instruction, just to that extent will such instruction be made more vital and valuable; and I think we had better go to work to do this, as the first step in the right direction, rather than to permit our efforts at reform to run into the narrow groove of mere object lessons, technically so-called. If our methods of instruction remain in the old ruts,—if we teach geography, arithmetic, reading, etc., in direct violation of every principle that constitutes object teaching,—object lessons, as a separate exercise, will soon run out and be abandoned. We ought to have these separate lessons on objects, but if they are to constitute the whole of the system, we had better give them up, and go to work to place all our methods of primary instruction on what we regard correct principles; and to this end we must train teachers, since it is idle to expect teachers to carry out a philosophical system of instruction if they have not mastered its principles,—if they do not know when they are carrying them out. But we need not neglect object lessons. I hold that such lessons are of great value as a means of relieving the monotony of our schools, even when conducted in a miscellaneous and hap-hazard manner. But let us not take mere talks about birds, trees, corn, etc., as a system of object teaching.

**MR. VENABLE.** Mr. President, I was pleased when I saw the announcement in the printed outline of exercises that this subject would come up, and that we should probably find out what the method reached by the majority of the teachers, really is; but I can not say that I yet clearly understand the subject. There seems to be, after all this discussion, two sides to the question: one party contending that object lessons should be used as a sort of system of instruction for the sake of instruction, advocated, as I understand it, by Mr. Henkle, who is noted for his love of facts; and the other theory contemplates the use of certain methods for the purpose of disciplining the mind in instruction, or forming a ground-work. In reference to the first plan, I think we have a superficial idea; that we have not had opportunity to discern, in some instances, the actual operation—what may be called methods of object teaching; and it seems to me that the majority of teachers who undertake to do this, do a great deal of bad work, and there is a great deal of work that is attempted to be done that is not done at all. It is true that children are made voluble by this method, but it seems to me that, generally speaking, they can talk quite fast enough without the addition of object lessons as an incentive, unless they have something more to say; and I do not look upon it as a very desirable accomplishment to use lan-

guage unless it is appropriately used, and some ideas expressed by it. And, in the second place, there seems to be a feeling that knowledge is very easy to get; that when I know all about a piece of chalk, a leaf, or a rose, and a variety of miscellaneous objects; and have classified and arranged them, that that is pretty nearly all of natural science; that facts take the place of principles. I can not see that there is any particular excuse for a special exercise called object lessons, as suggested by Mr. Mitchell. If a special exercise of that kind would be beneficial to the teacher in aiding him to impart knowledge of other subjects, I can not see why that same discipline—that same power—could not be gained by imparting the subject itself. Can we gain knowledge by teaching a little of this and that? Would it not be better to teach one subject according to the method of object teaching as described by Mr. White—to teach one subject thoroughly according to the method—than to attempt to teach many subjects imperfectly.

REV. MR. HARTSHORN. I notice in teachers, as in all others, a disposition to run to extremes. In every system of teaching we ought to pass from the visible to the invisible; from the concrete to the abstract; from things that are manifest to the senses, especially in our earlier instructions, to those that come within the precincts of reason, conscience, and the moral senses. This, I believe, is true in all intellectual instruction as in all moral or religious instruction. It has rather been my impression—I may be mistaken of course—that the system of object lessons (I do not refer to the system of object teaching sketched by Mr. White) has run a little too much in the direction of the visible, or in the direction of the concrete, to the neglect of those principles and sequences we should follow. I admit that we must approach the inner courts of the soul, of the understanding, and of the moral nature, through the senses, through concrete facts, but if we confine ourselves to these and make them our hobby, it occurs to me that children and youth will acquire such a mental habit that they will not go beyond them. I am under the impression that in every system of study, whether it be of natural science or mathematics, or whether it be literature, useful or ornamental, or even the classics, ancient or modern, we ought to have object teaching, object instruction; and I am prepared to say even object lessons. What is the use of the apparatus we have in natural science, or the diagram in mathematics? Of course these diagrams are placed on the blackboard to help scholars take hold of intangible things. Of course a right-angled triangle can not be seen, only represented in a rough diagram. And when we express vocal or spoken sounds, we must have writing. These are simple signs. These are means to an end, but we ought not to place too much stress on them, lest we incur that censure which Europeans have thrown on American education—superficiality.

## DISCUSSION ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

[TOPIC.—The feasibility of a general plan for the education and training of teachers, embracing a Normal School, Judicial-District and County Institutes.]

MR. COWDERY. Mr. Chairman and friends: The committee has assigned to me a very important duty, and I feel naturally solicitous to perform that duty to their satisfaction and the satisfaction of all; and yet I feel quite a reluctance to go into any general discussion of these measures. They have so long been before this Association, the ground has been traveled over so often, that it seems to me to be taxing your time and patience unnecessarily at this time to give a statement of the relation of normal schools to the profession, the public schools of Ohio, and the public generally.

You are ready to agree, friends, that anything that promises good to the children of the State should have your approval and sympathy. Are you not all agreed that whatever of good is to come to our country and the world, is to come through the education of the children of the country? It seems to me, as I look at this subject, that we are to expect great and good things for the future of our country, through the better education of the children of the country. It is certainly possible, within the purposes of Providence and His infinite power and wisdom, to convert nations, and change the mourning of a country to joy in a day, but it is not in accordance with the usual course of events. It is little by little we expect changes to come.

I shall ask your cordial assent to two or three things contained in Mr. White's late report to the State Legislature upon this subject. In it I find this sentiment:

The one *vital* condition of a good school is a *good teacher*. Other conditions are important; this is essential. School-houses and apparatus, text-books and courses of study, classification and supervision, are indeed valuable agencies and conditions, but they are all inadequate until vitalized by the informing spirit of the teacher. Hence in a system of education, the advancement of the teacher is increasing success; his want of progress, failure.

The distinguished M. Guizot, then Minister of Public Instruction in France, once said: "All the provisions hitherto described would be of no effect, if we took no pains to secure for the public school an *able master*." Victor Cousin, another able Minister of Public Instruction in France, is still more emphatic: "The best plans of instruction can not be executed except by the instrumentality of *good teachers*, and the State has done nothing for popular education, if it does not watch that those who devote themselves to teaching be well prepared. I attach the greatest importance to Normal Schools, and I consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them." Dr. Channing, in 1837, said: "The most crying want of this Commonwealth [Massachusetts] is that of accomplished teachers. We boast of our schools, but our schools do comparatively little, for want of educated instructors. *Without good teachers, a school is but a name*." Said Horace Mann, in alluding to the means for improving common schools: "But the *great agent* for carrying the benign work of reform to our schools *must be the teacher himself*. No fullness in the qualifications of others can be the supplement of any material deficiency in him."

Please accept these statements without argument; they have been read and reflected upon a great many times, and I am sure they express the settled opinion of the profession.

Let me also select another proposition, which I think you will also receive without any argument: "A well conducted teachers' institute, bearing directly



and practically upon the duties of the school-room, is an important instrumentality for the professional instruction of teachers." I also find in this report the statement that "of the States that have maintained for any considerable length of time a free school system, all but *three* have one or more normal schools established under State authority. The three exceptions are *New Hampshire, Vermont and Ohio.*"

I take it for granted, Mr. Chairman and friends, that we all agree that we need well-conducted institutes and an efficient, thorough normal school in Ohio, and the important question to be considered is, How can we secure these agencies? I ask your attention for a few moments to the distinctive character of the State Teachers' Association of Ohio. I wish, friends, to bear in mind the spirit in which this Association was organized. I wish you would recall for a few moments its infancy, its entire past history. I wish you to bear in mind that its friends early adopted this as a maxim, that it was the business of the profession to take care of the education of the children of the State. If not publicly and formally announced, if not "painted on the arch of the sky," it was I know in their hearts. They believed that over and above all the duties of the school-room, the routine school-room labor, the details of instruction, it was the bounden duty, as well as the highest privilege of the teachers of Ohio, to take care of the educational interest of the whole State. I think that was the sentiment that prevailed in the minds of those who first organized this Association. I think they clung closely and dearly to that sentiment in the early years of the Association, and have from that time to this to a greater or less extent. I wish to exhort all the older and younger members of the Association to adhere to this idea. Friends, have we any right to expect that any body else is going to do this work? If the teachers of the State of Ohio do not do it, who will do it? Do you expect that men of the legal profession, men of the medical profession, will do it? Do you expect men daily engaged in manufacturing, in farming, or in any other pursuit to do it? I hope you have no such expectations. I trust that you receive the sentiment that it is *our* duty to do all we can to carry forward this good work.

I ask your attention next to the history of our school legislation. I was interested last night in the allusions by the President to our progress in Ohio, and the changes which had been made in the school system of the State. How is it that the school system of Ohio to-day is so totally unlike the system of twenty years ago? Scarcely any of the old system remains. It has not been changed by persons not accustomed to investigate this subject. It was not a political party that did this work. It took good men of both parties, and it took the labor of the teachers of the State, to bring about this change. The enactment of the new school law in 1853, took two or three years of earnest labor on the part of the members of this Association. It was not the result of a little discussion, or the passage of a resolution. Nor was it brought about by the statesmanship or the patriotism of the members of the Legislature of Ohio at all. Good men in the Legislature stepped forward, and sustained the measure, but it did not originate with them. It began with the teachers, and was pushed forward, steadily pressed forward by the teachers, until we carried it through.

Now, I rise this afternoon to say, if we want a normal school, if we want any

thing more from the Legislature of the State, the teachers of the State must ask for it and secure it. We must take hold of this matter, and I may say here plainly, in a little different spirit, and with more energy than we have shown for the last three or four years. Another thing: We have been in the habit, since the creation of the office of State School Commissioner, of throwing everything upon the Commissioner's shoulders. Now I desire to say, once for all, and as plainly as possible, that we have no right to do any such thing under any circumstances. I wish to feel cordially toward every man in that office; I wish to treat every man respectfully in that office, whether an out-going man or an incoming man; but we must carry our work right along, no matter who is in the office. If he is a good man, and sympathizes with us, all right—we are glad of it. If he is a man of other professions, and has no sympathy with us, let us still go on.

If we get a State normal school, if we get these measures suggested by Mr. White (and I believe they are the best that can be suggested) through the Legislature, by the influence of one man or five, the Legislature should be sustained. Let the members of the Legislature understand next winter, that in every county in the State of Ohio, in every school-district, everywhere, there are good men and true, sustaining them in this demand, no matter of what party they may be, and we shall be likely to succeed. I have no faith in talking about these things, and then going home and doing nothing. The only way to get these things is to work for them. I offer the following resolution: [See Minutes, p. 230.]

MR. NORRIS. I did not come here to address this Association on any of the questions that are proposed for discussion. I have taken occasion, however, in my private interviews with some of the members of this Association to make suggestions in regard to the proper method to be adopted by this Association to affect public sentiment, and to secure legislation upon topics that are being discussed. I have no hesitancy in saying to the Association, that I think much may be done by the teachers of the State of Ohio and the friends of education generally, in operating through the school department, both to affect public sentiment and to secure necessary legislation. It is observable that the efforts that have been made by the friends of education have not been made with sufficient consistency and unanimity. Petitions are sent to the members of the legislative body from various localities in the State; these petitions come in without reference to any particular topic from one part of the State. They may come up this year from one place bearing on normal schools, while other parts of the State may not move this year in that direction, but may, perhaps, be petitioning the Legislature upon some other feature, such as the establishment of county superintendencies or district superintendencies. These petitions are read and are referred before they become laws. I have thought it would be well if all these petitions, in connection with the annual report and the correspondence with the school committees of the General Assembly—all such as bear on the same topic—be consolidated, and presented to the Legislature as a voucher for the Commissioner from the people. Legislatures look closely to public sentiment. Unless the Commissioner can be backed by something more than mere argument, however potently put, his recommendations will, in all likelihood,

lose their effect, so far as securing immediate action is concerned. We must then look first to public sentiment, if we wish to establish normal schools or superintendencies, either county or district. If, therefore, efforts were made on the Legislature through the school department, coming up as petitions from various localities in the State as vouchers for the Commissioner, or other person who may petition or attempt to cause legislation, then, in all probability, they would hear him, and act upon his suggestion. A member of the General Assembly wants to be satisfied that the community and public sentiment call for this or that action; he is very careful about taking any steps to secure anything that may be in advance of public sentiment. Hence it is necessary to sustain the Commissioner, or any other person who may represent the views and interests of the educators of the State, by such a consolidation of petitions. I would feel, for my own part, as though my influence or the influence of the school department would be increased a thousand per cent, or, indeed, beyond any definite estimate, if the teachers of the State would address the General Assembly through the school department upon any topic that they might wish to have carried into effect. So it has occurred to me that we are neglecting, to a very considerable extent, the great power that might affect public sentiment, in the manner in which we conduct our institutes, and in the manner in which this Association is conducted. We are engaged in discussing methods of teaching. What is wanted more than this, is to create a public sentiment that will pay talent in the field. When talent is paid, and due honor given to the profession, then the means must follow as a necessary consequence. I should think it would be advisable that we have educational literature and educational treatises made available to the people all over the State; but take up our county journals and papers, and not one in fifty of them devotes a column to educational literature. Why? Because the teachers of the State do not exercise the necessary influence in that direction. I am told by the editorial fraternity of the State, that they would gladly welcome and co-operate in anything that may be done through their journals to affect public sentiment. Why can't we have, as political parties have, an executive committee,—a branch of this organization,—in every county, which shall be responsible for the dissemination of educational literature in their respective counties?

I am not prepared, Mr. President, as I said in my opening remarks, to address you at length upon these questions. I did not expect to speak at all, and I beg to be excused for the desultory manner in which I have presented my few ideas.

THE PRESIDENT. "I would like to hear a little more from the Commissioner, as to the manner of getting up these petitions. I am not sure whether he has himself thought out the subject in detail. His advice strikes me as being in the highest degree good, and that we should act upon it. We have, on one or two occasions, got up systematic petitions all over the State upon some subjects. This has been done once or twice, and I believe it has been done with effect. Now, it might be well to instruct our executive committee to have authority in this matter—to get up blank petitions, and send them to our friends throughout the State. Perhaps it is not necessary to go into the detail of that matter be-

fore the Convention. It might be done by the committee with the advice of the Commissioner.

I wish to speak a word on the establishment of normal schools in the State of Ohio, in connection with district normal institutes and county teachers' institutes. The establishment of one normal school has been proposed. This is all that we ought to attempt at present. It may be thought that more than one will be needed in the State of Ohio, but let us begin with only one, and address all our efforts to the establishment of that. We have the same reasons for this that we would have for the other course that has been advised by Mr. Norris—that it is better policy, if we wish to obtain anything, that we should ask for one and not more than one at a time. If one normal school shows itself to be a valuable and excellent institution, adding strength and efficiency to the common school system of the State, increasing the number of qualified teachers, and if it shall appear, after it shall have been fully established, that there is a demand for more, it will then be time enough to establish others. In connection with a normal school, it is proposed to have district normal institutes. My impression is, that there are eleven judicial districts. As I understand, the proposition is, that in each of these there should be established a normal institute, to be held not less than a month and not more than two months in the year, acting, during that time, as a normal school to a very great degree;—to a certain extent, however, as a teachers' institute, combining the two elements. The normal school proper, the only State normal school, is to remain purely and entirely a normal school—a professional school where the profession shall be taught, and teachers shall be trained in their professional necessities, and not go beyond that. We have now in the State of Ohio the means of sustaining, as often probably as once every third year, a county teachers' institute in every county in the State. Let us have all these in operation at once, and each will be far more useful than it now is. With the district normal institutes there would be a great deal done that is now done in the county teachers' institutes, but it would leave, however, a different kind of work for the county meetings, and that work could be done better because attention would be given exclusively to it. It would, however, take away from the district institutes a good deal of the business that is now occupying the attention of the county teachers' meetings. These district institutes under a general system could be more thorough than they now are. I hope that this matter will receive the approval of the Association, that the resolution which has been offered by Mr. Cowdery will be adopted unanimously, and after that it may be well that another resolution be offered instructing the executive committee to take measures to have petitions circulated in every county in the State, and also to take measures to have the matter spoken of in all the county newspapers in the State. Now, I know that what Mr. Norris said, with reference to newspapers, is true to a certain extent, but for one I plead guilty to laziness in not having done anything about it myself. Every county editor would very gladly publish anything that we would prepare for him, but I do not like to take it all on my own shoulders. There are several of us who might prepare matter if we would. I believe it is the same thing in other counties of the State. It is the same in Cincinnati, and the papers there do something of that kind occasionally, by fits and starts. They have a paper there now that

comes out once in two weeks, that does some work in this matter, and I hope that it will do more. And we can do a great deal if we make it our business to have this matter ventilated in the county papers throughout the State. As I remarked once before, my brother teachers and sister teachers, the responsibility is upon us. I believe that there is a great deal of truth in the idea thrown out by the Commissioner. We must do the work, and if we will set to work, we can do it; but we must put our shoulders to the wheel, every one of us.

MR. HANCOCK. At the last meeting of the Association at Cincinnati, we laid out work, and so far perfected it, that we expected results from it during the year. I am sorry to say that our expectations were not realized, and I fear that if we depend on newspapers, our expectations will not be realized during the coming year. I remember, sir, to have had a conversation with the conductor of a metropolitan journal, and his theory of journalism was this: When I was urging upon him to put some educational matter in his paper, he said: "We print what the people want to read, and nobody wants to read that kind of stuff." And I believe that is the theory of journalism, and I do know from my own experience that there is a good deal of difficulty in getting anything "educational" into a metropolitan journal. They care nothing about it, and when they do, after much persuasion, give place to an article on an educational topic, they put it on the fourth page where nobody ever sees it. The reason why we have no normal school, as I believe Mr. White will inform you, is not that there is opposition on the part of legislators, but a want of knowledge on their part. The teachers of Ohio are not awake. How many of the twenty thousand are here to-day? How many of our own city, that has so lately done grand things in the way of an increase of salaries, are present to-day? Until we are alive ourselves, it will be in vain to expect that the community will be alive. We have no normal school in Ohio because we don't work for it. We make speeches here and offer resolutions, and that is the last of it until the next annual meeting, when everybody comes up and makes the same old speech again on normal schools. I presume I have got off this speech before. We never say anything about it to the politicians—to those men who move legislation. They know nothing about it, and, as a matter of course, they care nothing about it. Now, we shall have a normal school, if we are in earnest about it. We shall have county superintendents when we are thoroughly in earnest about them, and we shall not have them before. If the people of Ohio will not give us these things, we shall have to go up and demand a resolution for them. And every man here—and when I say man I mean woman, too,—must work for the good result, if we expect to accomplish it. If we had five hundred in this Convention who would all work, we should accomplish this result next winter. Why, Ohio has made the most—(I will say it in the presence of General Leggett)—glorious record in the war of any State in the Union. The county institutes will always be one of the most efficient means of instruction among teachers; no number of normal schools can supply their place; and when we shall have a county institute in every county in the State, and have live men to conduct them (and there is a great want of them), we shall have normal schools, as many as we think are profitable; we shall have county superintendents; we shall have good schools; and, what is more important, we shall have good wages paid

fore the Convention. It might be done by the Commissioner.

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I do not know what my friend's experience may be with the "metropolitan press," as he calls it, but my experience with the local press and county papers is quite different. I believe that if the teachers of the State would prepare spicy articles, such as they wish to present to their patrons, the county papers will publish them. I plead guilty with yourself, Mr. President, to a feeling of laziness, or something of the kind which I can not express exactly, that I have not in my own vicinity done all I knew to be my duty in that direction. I believe I speak the feelings of every teacher here. Let us go home and go to work, and manufacture this sentiment among the common people, or, as Lincoln would call them, "the plain people" of the country. I know that the cause of education is dear to them, and I know that any thing which we may ask in reason—anything that we may present to them as being likely to produce good results—anything that will build up the educational system of the State—will meet their hearty approval. I know that in my own county I can circulate petitions embodying the spirit of these resolutions, and not expect a refusal to

on them. I believe that is true of every county. Let us, then, take hold of the matter. Let us have no division of sentiment. Let us ask for it in such a way that our voice will be heeded.

**PRESIDENT ANDREWS.** I am glad, sir, that this discussion is taking what I believe to be a practical direction. I do not agree with my friend from Cincinnati, in respect to the press or the Legislature. I believe the Ohio men will do their duty just as thoroughly as the teachers will, and I do not think it is best for us to find fault with them, but to do our own duty. Whenever you can get the truth before them, it is my conviction they will respond to it, and I think nothing confirms that more than the present condition of public education in the State of Ohio. I do not think we had better lay out too much work, but aim at one or two things, and endeavor to accomplish those. With respect to influencing the Legislature I will say, that last winter I had my men picked out, and then waited all winter to know what to do. When did we get the Commissioner's Report? I had to beg for it myself, and did not see it till about the adjournment of the Legislature. I had to go to the committee on printing. That document was not promulgated or scattered abroad, and, so far as I know, the recommendations of the Commissioner did not come before the Legislature and the people till the time for action had gone. Now, I believe the teachers of Ohio should try to influence their representatives and others whom they can.

**MR. CROSBY.** I think that when we come to know the facts of the case, it will be found rather to our advantage not to have pressed this matter at the last meeting. I want to remind the people of Ohio, that Indiana, Kentucky and Pennsylvania all have normal schools, and that at the next Legislature we ought to favor one.

**MR. WHITE.** It is probably well known to the members of this Association, that at the Toledo meeting a committee, with Hon. Rufus King, of Cincinnati, as chairman, was appointed to memorialize the General Assembly respecting the establishment of a State normal school. As a result of this action, the Commissioner of Common Schools was instructed by the General Assembly of 1864-5 to make to the next General Assembly a special report upon this subject. This duty I discharged to the best of my ability, and the report was laid before the General Assembly in February last, only four or five days before my term of office expired. The recommendations of the report were, I think, received with considerable favor, and had there been on the part of the leading teachers of the State, simultaneous action, would have been at once embodied in legislation. This failure of the leading teachers to co-operate with promptness may have been due to an imperfect or partial distribution of the report. Fifteen hundred copies of the report were printed for distribution, and it was hoped that all the leading teachers in the State would receive it through his member of the General Assembly. It seems many did not receive it. The printing of my annual report was delayed until near the close of the session—too late to influence legislation. Believing it to be best, under the circumstances, to let the measure lie over until the next session of the General Assembly, I did not draft a bill, nor did I urge immediate action upon the school committees of the two Houses. In this I may have been wrong, but I think I acted wisely.

I am confident that the requisite legislation can be secured, if the teachers of the State will take hold of the matter. Show the members of the General Assembly that the measure is necessary, that it will increase the efficiency of our common school system, and you will carry your point; and \$20,000 or \$25,000 to carry on a system of professional instruction for the teachers of the State, will be cheerfully appropriated.

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### DISCUSSION ON HIGHER ARITHMETIC.

[TOPIC.—Should the study of Higher Arithmetic give way to the study of Algebra and Geometry, and, as far as possible, of other branches of the Higher Mathematics?]

MR. RICKOFF. I will mention what seems to me to be some objections to our present course in the teaching of higher arithmetic. In my school-boy days—and they were passed largely in the country schools—we were put into arithmetic when we commenced, and were kept at it until our connection with the common schools ceased. We were put in Ray's Arithmetic, which was used even then, and then in Smith's and other arithmetics of the smaller fry, and then on Pike's and Campbell's mathematics; and to this day, I believe, arithmetic is made a special subject of study in the common schools of our country districts all over the land. Teachers are rated very much according to their ability to perform all the sums in Ray's or other arithmetics, and some teachers take the precaution which a fellow member of the board of education in Cincinnati assured me he took when he commenced teaching, not only to solve all the questions in Ray's and Smith's arithmetics, but, said he, "I got all the arithmetics I could find, new and old; I had a collection of nearly a hundred. I did not solve all the sums in them, but I looked over the examples and saw into the facts, and then said, 'If any one chooses to present any of those difficult questions I shall be qualified.'"

Allow me to say as introductory, that geometry, as presented in Dr. Hill's little book, is well adapted for children between six and ten years of age, though some of the problems may be a little too difficult for children of that age. Instead of using Ray's, Greenleaf's or Stoddard's higher arithmetics in our schools, it would be better to introduce the subject of algebra or geometry. We might take it up even at the age of ten or eleven years, when pupils complete decimals or proportion in arithmetic. I would leave the subjects of square and cube root to be taken up after geometry. I claim that geometry is much more interesting to children than higher arithmetic, and this is one great advantage—not only is it more interesting, but I believe that it is easier. It is easier for a boy or girl to go through Davies' Legendre, one of the higher text-books on that subject, than it is to master the demonstrations of the square root, or the principles of interest and percentage. Besides, geometry is better adapted to the development of the mind and the cultivation of its powers than the study of arithmetic.

The proper place for algebra, it seems to me, is after and not before geome-



try, or it may be taken up with geometry, say after the conclusion of the third or fourth book of Davies' *Legendre*. I speak of that book only as a standard with which most of those present are familiar.

THE PRESIDENT. I do not know whether I can say anything that will be of benefit to the members of this Association upon this question, but I do know that it is a question which I have studied very diligently for a number of years. What is the proper course of mathematics and the proper succession of subjects? On some points I agree entirely with the gentleman who has just addressed you. Even in our common-school arithmetics there are some subjects which had better be omitted. If the child has become thoroughly conversant with the first rules, with common fractions, and with decimal fractions, he is then able to commence the study of either algebra or geometry. He should become acquainted with the equation as a method—for the equation is simply a method of reasoning, and not a new scientific fact—before studying proportion, which is one of the most intricate and difficult forms of the equation. I would introduce the simple thing first. I would go further. I would use a letter or some symbol (I know no better than the letter  $x$ ) to represent the unknown quantity, the thing sought for, the answer as it is commonly called. Then let the child be taught to state and solve simple equations. As I understand it, this is not algebra at all; it is merely a method, and can be called an arithmetical method as well as an algebraical method. I know that in the ordinary series of books the equation is confined to algebra. I am very sorry that is so. The equation should be introduced into arithmetic, not later than the point I have indicated, and I am not sure but that it might be introduced earlier. It is very simple and clear when children have learned it, and they then have a new power of reasoning, and are also better prepared to understand general reasoning; and when we come to general reasoning upon numbers, we then have algebra.

But the question immediately before us is, whether the study of higher arithmetic ought not to give way to the study of algebra and geometry, and, as far as possible, of other branches of higher mathematics? Now, what are we to understand by higher arithmetic? We have a great deal of so-called higher arithmetic, which seems to me to be nothing but common arithmetic. And it becomes necessary, then, in the discussion of this question, that we should define exactly what we mean by higher arithmetic. It may be owing to my dullness, but I am unable to perceive any essential difference between most of the higher arithmetics and the books called common-school arithmetics. But, nevertheless, there is a higher arithmetic. There is a science which differs from that of the ordinary arithmetic, but this higher arithmetic is really algebra. If by higher arithmetic we mean the common methods carried a step farther, I protest against pupils continuing upon them for several additional years. Let us not carry arithmetic in that direction. But that arithmetic may be studied to great advantage where algebra is now frequently studied, I do believe, and why? In the first place, it must be studied in the algebraic method. After children have learned the use of the equation, they are then ready to commence a general investigation of principles, which is algebra. When we have investigated these principles, we should turn about, and apply them to the study of arithmetic again. And now, in the investigation and demonstration of these

general principles, we have what may be truly called higher arithmetic. In pursuing this course we attain two things, viz: The mental discipline which is obtained by the study of algebra—for the method is algebraical—and a review of the principles of arithmetic. I would consider this decidedly preferable to the study of so much algebra. The teacher who has studied arithmetic from beginning to end, in the algebraic point of view, has acquired a mastery of the subject and a familiarity with the principles which fit him to teach much better than one who has not thus studied the subject. I wish some one would prepare a work on arithmetic applying algebra more than it has been. I know that something has been done by one of our own distinguished teachers in that direction, but not as much as should be.

I wish to say here as a teacher of mathematics, that I protest against so much mathematics in our schools. We go over the whole field of mathematics, but it is only at the surface, as a general thing, that it is touched. So far as my observation goes (except in my own class, of course), four-fifths of the pupils who go through analytical geometry have scarcely a true conception of what analytical geometry is, and I will venture to say of those who study the calculus, a majority have no idea of what it is. I think it would be far better if we confined our labors, to less in point of *surface*, and would dig deeper where we attempt to cultivate. We do not teach the mathematics with sufficient thoroughness. I know that much better work can be done; that original work and thorough work can be done in the elements of algebra. It is a common thing, so far as my observation goes, for teachers to skip the fifth chapter of Ray's Algebra (those who use Ray's work will know what I mean). I see some smiles to show that it is recognized. Now, the fifth chapter of Ray's Algebra is algebra, and a great deal of the rest of the book is arithmetic. I do not speak exclusively of that algebra. It is the case with all of them. The fifth chapter of Ray is a general method of investigation, a generalization, and this is algebra; and not till the pupil has mastered the idea of generalization, does he know algebra.

I see several gentlemen who have taught the mathematics, and who would not teach without thinking about it, and I would like to hear from them.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS. The question propounded here—without going into any question as to higher or lower arithmetic—seems to be this: Whether or not too much attention is given in our schools to the study of arithmetic? I have given a good deal of attention to this matter, and had some pretty strong convictions in regard to it, and with your permission I will state them. We want arithmetic to be understood. Let us put the question in this form: How shall the pupil get the best knowledge of arithmetic? Shall he get it as is now generally done by continuing the subject until it is, in the technical language of our schools, exhausted, or until the subject is mastered? Though we use these terms, you will allow me to say, Mr. President, I am very careful of ever saying that my pupils have *mastered* a subject. I often see it stated by teachers that their pupils do not study books, but they study subjects, and they leave nothing till it is mastered. There is a good time coming evidently. I shall be glad myself when the day comes that I can say that my pupils have mastered anything. Take any subject you please, and the usual way of "mastering" it is this: It is to begin at the beginning and continue it up every day until the pupil

passes into the high school. I asked a gentleman from Cincinnati a moment ago, what was the requisition to enter the high school in Cincinnati—whether any algebra is taught below the high school? He says no. But the pupils are expected to be masters of arithmetic. It seems to me that this is unphilosophical, and is not the best way to acquire a knowledge of arithmetic. When a boy has acquired a knowledge of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, and can apply them to fractions, he has arithmetic. The rest of it is applied. I take it that the boy may be and should be taught this perfectly. He may be taught to multiply so that he shall not make a mistake once in a hundred times. But you may study arithmetic till you are gray, and never come to the end of it. This is the trouble with our schools. The pupils must work all the problems that ever were invented before they can be considered to have mastered arithmetic. The important point is, that the boy has not brains to do it. He has not the maturity of years. I would, therefore, take the boy through the common rules and fractions, and teach him to work examples, not problems, with facility and certainty. I take it that a boy twelve or thirteen years of age can, so far as the practice of these rules is concerned, be perfect, and yet he can not state the problems in our common arithmetic with any degree of skill or readiness. His father can because he has reached years of maturity; the boy has not. I think as soon as a boy has mastered these elementary rules, he should be passed into something higher—something which enables him to be a better mathematician. I would have a boy go into Ray's Algebra before he is half through the common arithmetic. After he has gone through simple equations, I take it he will be just as expert in them as in vulgar fractions. Let him not finish arithmetic until a good deal of algebra is learned.

As I look over the school system of the State, it strikes me, one of the most vital problems is, what to do with the children from ten to fourteen years of age? If you will pardon the reference to my own family, I will tell you what I did. When my boy was eleven years of age, he was in the grammar school where he had been a year, where he studied arithmetic, grammar, geography. I asked him one day how far he had gone in arithmetic; he said to compound interest. I tried him on decimal fractions—we all have test questions you know. I gave him the example to divide ten by twenty-five hundredths. He did it quickly. I said: "If this boy remains in this school two years more, he will just go over this ground of arithmetic, grammar and geography, and become disgusted with the tread-mill routine, and so I stopped him, and put him into Latin, algebra and other studies, and I believe that it was a great deal better for him.

As our courses of study are arranged, a boy can not enter the high school until he can answer every possible question in arithmetic, so until fourteen, fifteen and sixteen, he studies arithmetic, grammar and geography. I believe it would be better to introduce geometry and algebra; then finish arithmetic, and come back to these again.

Another question is, How much time shall be devoted to arithmetic? I am not sure that we are any better off in education than we were before the first higher arithmetic was published. I am in great doubt whether, after little children have gone through the first, second and third books in our series of arithmetics thoroughly, any more time in school should be given to arithmetic. I

believe every teacher would do well to get a higher arithmetic and study it, and that it would be well in the high school course to spend a term reviewing arithmetic. But I protest against the idea of beginning at the primary, and going through all the succeeding books, and I would never allow my children to do it. The point before us, however, is this: Algebra and geometry *versus* higher arithmetic, or higher arithmetic *versus* these. I place myself decidedly on the side of algebra and geometry. I am very clear in my conviction that the cause of education would be promoted by devoting a great deal less time to arithmetic and more to algebra and geometry.

**MR. EDWARDS.** Many boys leave school when they are thirteen or fourteen years old: interest is so much practical importance that they should be taught it. In consequence of this, I teach it, and put in the grammar school elementary algebra. I teach interest because a great portion of the scholars should not go into the world without having a knowledge of it. It seems to me desirable that the subject of trigonometry should be taught; also, mensuration and the simple part of navigation. In our common high schools, I do not think it would be well to take up the calculus or analytical geometry.

**MR. HENKLE.** The only difference between ordinary and higher arithmetic is the difference between tender meat and tough meat. I suppose the real question is, Whether we shall proceed to the study of higher arithmetic after simple arithmetic, or take up algebra and geometry? If this is the question, I say decidedly, that I am in favor of taking up algebra and geometry. I have tried my best to take a class through Ray's higher arithmetic, and I confess that I could not do it in less than a year, and if I should call up the experience of the ladies and gentlemen here, I think they would say the same thing. After pupils have mastered elementary algebra, they should take up higher arithmetic or commercial arithmetic. But I think gentlemen will find trouble in taking up algebra as soon as boys have gone through decimal and common fractions: they have not been engaged in the subject long enough to attain that facility that is necessary for them to proceed to other studies. So far as geometry is concerned I agree with Dr. Hill, that it can be taught to little children; in fact, it is one of our object studies. I do not think there is one problem in Dr. Hill's book but that can be solved by children. I think that ordinary geometry should be taught after algebra, and not before. I can teach algebra to pupils better than geometry. I do not refer to the practice of committing the demonstrations to memory, which reminds me very much of studying algebra with a key. I do not think any good is derived from the study of geometry, unless the pupil has the faculty to originate demonstrations, to manage new cases just as in algebra.

**MR. WHITE.** I learn from my friend on my left, Mr. Crosby, that the pupils in the schools of Cincinnati spend six years on arithmetic, and that one-third of their time is daily devoted to the subject. In several grades the classes have two recitations a day in arithmetic—one in mental and the other in written arithmetic. This fairly represents the state of things in our best schools. It seems to me that too much time is given to arithmetic, and that we attempt to have children master the subject at too early an age. President Andrews hit the nail on the head when he said they have not the brains to do it; they need more maturity. We must wait for the child's mind as well as body to grow be

fore we can undertake the mastery of arithmetic as a science. If we do not wait, nature will be sure to thwart us, in spite of all our efforts. I am decidedly in favor of spending much less time upon arithmetic. It has no claims that justify its receiving twice as much attention as any other common-school study.

MR. HANCOCK. As Mr. White says, we grind six years on arithmetic in Cincinnati, in a kind of machine way, and after all this grinding, the boys and girls, candidates for the high schools, too often know but little in regard to mental arithmetic, and not much more in written arithmetic. Is not that rather too small pay for the amount of grinding and turning of the crank? It seems to me so. And not only in this, but in too many other subjects, we teach mechanically. We have not endeavored to reduce our systems of instruction to a method. We have been teaching our pupils mechanically, and they come out with about as much thought as Babbage's Calculating Machine. I remember last spring I put on the blackboard at a teachers' institute the question, "How much will 480 yards of cloth come to at  $\$1.87\frac{1}{2}$  a yard," and I pledge you every one set down 480 and multiplied it by  $\$1.87\frac{1}{2}$ ; and ninety-nine out of every one hundred of the pupils of our schools would do the same thing. I fear we do too much by machinery. All our pupils in the Cincinnati schools in every grade, know the words they will have to spell—know every lesson they will have to read the coming year, and every question to be answered in geography. In our schools the words to be spelled are all marked, so that the pupil knows exactly what words he has to learn to spell. In examining candidates for admission into my school, I happened to give a word or two not marked, and the moment they were given, every little hand came up. I wanted to know what was the matter; and they said at once the words were not in the course. [Laughter.] The trouble is we teach too much in the course. We do not teach spelling and geography properly. The fact is, men's minds are not built up like a brick house by laying one brick on another, and putting a little mortar between: they grow very much as trees grow, in a kind of miscellaneous way. The true medium in arithmetic seems to me to be this: arithmetic is taught for two purposes: first, to enable pupils to make money—to apply it to business; secondly, to lay a foundation for the higher mathematics. I believe there is a vast deal of unnecessary matter in the higher arithmetics. I have been led to believe that if a boy or girl knows the fundamental rules and fractions well, he or she can go on to higher mathematics. Arithmetic is a good thing, but not good to ride as a hobby; and if there is anything on the face of the earth that is ridden by teachers at a break-neck speed, it is this one hobby of arithmetic.

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[JULY 5, 1866.]

#### DISCUSSION ON ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

[TOPIC.—Is English Grammar now generally taught so as to be of any considerable advantage to the student?]

MR. VENABLE. It is nothing more than just that I should say, that I did not know until this morning that I was to offer this report; but being in close proximity to a reporter of the lightning style of writing, I somehow labored by in-

duction to scratch off a few thoughts which will form the basis of what I have to say.

Is English grammar, as taught in the schools, of any benefit? Some will deny that it is, and contend that grammar may be learned by conversation from those who speak the English language correctly, and by an acquaintance with books. It seems to me that this is putting the subject on too narrow grounds, and assuming that the art of grammar is all of grammar, whereas grammar is a science as well as an art; and the question arises whether that science is not as important as any other science, to be learned as a matter of abstract knowledge, as useful as a knowledge of arithmetic, algebra, or any other ordinary branch of education? What is the difference between the truthfulness of one set of truths and another set of truths? Ought not all truths to be sought after, and ought not this to be the ground on which we as teachers should put the theory of education: that knowledge is to be sought for wherever it may be found? I do not like the question, "Of what use?" to come up so often in education. It seems to me, that we are rather admitting the prevailing sentiment that money is the greatest thing to be attained. I wish it to be understood that I am orthodox on this subject, and believe that grammar should be studied as any other science. Many young writers do not strive to imitate the style of Addison and the other established guides, but follow Carlyle, forgetting that Carlyle is a genius, and in spite of grammar or rhetoric, can write his thoughts. Why ought not the principles of grammar to be studied as well as those of the other sciences? Why are not the principles that underlie it just as necessary as the principles of any other science? Why not in arithmetic simply teach interest and those few rules that apply to the practical affairs of life, and let all the other rules go? Why not in geography teach only that which is necessary to transport products from one place to another? It is not true that people will learn to write correctly by reading books. This might be illustrated by the well known fact that many persons can spell very well orally, but entirely fail when they come to write the words. To him who wishes to write well, it seems to me that a reference to some standard work on grammar is just as necessary as a reference to dictionaries is necessary to him who wishes to spell well. If one forgets a particular rule of grammar, he ought to look it up and be sure to be right. The original design of grammar, I believe, was to assist in the study of languages, and some have decided that the proper method of studying English grammar is to begin by studying the Latin grammar. I am well aware a great deal can be said in favor of that, and I think in part it is true, but this I know, that the boy may be very perfect in Latin grammar and not understand English grammar. I had to correct recently the graduation papers of some students who graduated with the idea of entering Harvard, and I think I never had so many papers come into my hands that contained so many violations of English grammar. Supposing grammar necessary to be taught in the schools, the question comes up, How is it to be taught? I advocate what I understand to be the ordinary method—the old method which I believe has been found to be good by practice. For fear some gentlemen will cry out "old fogyism," "conservatism," etc., I would ask, Is it not better to hold on to old methods until we are entirely sure that the new methods are better? Are we not in danger of running into

new philosophic notions by going too fast, than by holding to the old until we have tested the new. I have taught grammar for eight or nine years, and tried many methods, and in no method have I secured the results that I have by the use of the old method. Let us labor to infuse an interest in truth—vital truth—something solid—something which you can feel you have got. It seems to me, that the principles of grammar are easier than any other abstract principles—and children must begin to learn principles and definitions sometime. Let them be well learned, and the time is not wasted. I think it is well to take advantage of the plastic condition of the memory of children to learn them things which will be useful. One thing is necessary in grammar: a good text-book; and there is much difference of opinion on this. I would give an orthodox opinion, and recommend Gould Brown. I find it to answer the purpose very well, because it is not a hard book, and the definitions are exhaustive. He has a passage in his preface discountenancing the new, easy methods of studying grammar, with which I fully agree.

I would introduce more exercises in synthesis than are usually employed in teaching grammar. The great argument in favor of the old method of teaching is, that it is thorough, and that in the end all the subject is taught, though it may be some things unnecessary are learned; but in learning those, others that are essential are learned. And it is much better that one subject should be learned well, than that many should be learned superficially. In the language of Festus: "It is the saddest and the sorest sight," one who has studied all the branches of a common school course, without having penetrated into the real significance of any of them. More sad than the saddest the spectacle of one who thinks he knows a subject, the very elements of which are not really understood. Knowledge will not come of itself. Ignorance is not to be cured by high dilutions of homeopathic instruction, however sweet and palatable. Some truth is simple and easy to know; some is abstract, difficult, only to be gained by hard work. It is not real kindness in us to smooth the road to learning too much for pupils. I despise books labeled "arithmetic made easy," "grammar made easy," etc. Truth is truth. God made it easy or hard according to his wisdom. We can not make it different. Methods we *can* alter and improve—facts and laws of nature are unchangeable. In general study, Ruskin's illustration in reference to reading applies.

MR. CURRAN. In regard to new things, I am a progressive conservative. I am ready to listen to any man who has any thing new that I never saw, and to give careful attention to it, but I am slow to adopt it until I am convinced it is worth something. A boy who can speak the English language as correctly as we generally do, is a grammarian in one sense, and I should think that it would be no difficult task to make him see that he is one. And that is my task in teaching grammar; I want to make him see that he knows grammar.

MR. THOMPSON. A certain friend of mine (whose experience has been mine) says that as soon as he got fairly started, his teachers put him into a Latin grammar; soon he got so that he could move with ease, when they put a Greek clog on the other leg, and that stopped him in his course. The Greek grammar was written in Latin, and he had to learn Latin to get at the Greek

If you expect good results in the primary and secondary departments, you

must give a great deal of attention to oral gymnastics and the practicing of the elementary sounds of our language. Let the teacher take up a sentence, and ask the children: "What are the names in this sentence," and every child in the room will know them in ten minutes. They then begin to look for names in other sentences. Then you can take up adjectives—"an adjective is a word that expresses of what kind a thing is;" and you go all through the second reader teaching in that way. The children are studying grammar, and yet do not know it. You need only attend to it three or four minutes in a day.

**MR. CROSSY.** Why should not the principles of grammar be taught as well as the principles of any other subject? I believe that the processes of arithmetic should be taught before the principles of arithmetic. I believe a boy should be taught to add, subtract, multiply, etc., before he is taught the reasons why. Speaking of arithmetic, I will admit that we teach too mechanically in Cincinnati. The classes in the intermediate schools averaged ninety-one per cent. on the questions, and I think you will find that there are some problems among them that could not have been answered, unless arithmetic had been taught properly. I believe that arithmetic should be taught mechanically in the first place, and I believe the same in regard to grammar. I do not think the principles of grammar are easy; the principles of grammar, the science of language, the philosophy of language can not be taught as arithmetic can, so that there will be from seventy-five to ninety-nine per cent. of the questions asked, correctly answered. I remember a boy said to me: "I have been studying grammar for so long, I think I can answer every question in the book, yet I do not think that I can speak the language properly." We should teach grammar so that our children may be able to speak and write the language correctly. I believe that the old method of teaching grammar as a science of language, should be conducted in the high schools, but I think we can institute a method of teaching grammar which will result in a proper speaking and writing of the English language, and which will be of much more advantage than any present method.

**MR. HANCOCK.** I wish to say in regard to what I said yesterday, that I stand upon the record. I misrepresented nothing. It is as things actually exist. I did not say, of course, that good percentages were not obtained by some; but those remarks were meant to apply to general and not particular cases.

In regard to grammar, it professes to be a science or an art to teach one to speak and write the English language with correctness, and I aver, from my experience and observation, that the methods pursued in the schools of Ohio—and I think those of the United States in general—do not accomplish that object: that our pupils are far from being able to speak and write with elegance. I will assert here something which you may think wide of the mark, but which I think, if you will reflect, you will find is sustained by the facts. I assert that no man or woman ever learned to speak or write the English language from the instruction he or she received in grammar in school. It can not be done. I knew a lady who said she had committed Murray's Grammar to memory from beginning to end, and could recite every word in it, rules, remarks, exceptions, and all; but she could not write a single paragraph correctly, as any one would



see who had read her writing. I think that we study technical grammar too much, and I am convinced that that is one reason why school-misses and school-masters do not speak and write more elegantly. I read nearly all the professional works in the English language that came out, and I am free to confess that it is very dry work [laughter], because their matter is presented in a very unattractive manner. Schoolmasters do not generally write good English. I am one myself, and I believe if I had not been taught grammar as it was taught in my younger days, I should be able to write better English. How does any man who ever becomes a proficient in writing, do it? He does not study an English grammar, but he takes some of the best writers in the language, studies the structure of the sentences, and by that means forms a style of his own. I do not believe that there is any *science* of grammar in the English language. I have failed to see it, if there is. It is a mass of rules formed on the Latin, a language different from the English entirely. If I had to teach my own children, I would send them to Prescott and Irving, and tell them not to model their style from them, but to see how beautifully the sentences are made up. In teaching grammar, I place some of the most finished poetry I can find on the blackboard—ten or twelve lines of Milton, for instance;—the pupils take it up, analyze it, and show the relations of the parts of the sentence to each other. I take the words, and show how beautifully they fit the sense and how scarcely any other word could express so beautifully the idea. Sometimes I take "Bryant's Poems" or "Thomson's Seasons." That in my opinion is the way to teach grammar.

## DISCUSSION ON COUNTY SUPERVISION.

[TOPIC.—Is it advisable for Teachers to labor for the establishment of County Superintendencies?]

CAPT. MITCHELL. The question is, Whether it is advisable for the teachers of Ohio to labor for the establishment of county supervision in the State? I report unhesitatingly in the affirmative. It appears to me the two most important measures to be acted upon at the present time by the friends of education, are the establishment of a State normal school and the organization of some efficient method of county supervision in the rural districts of the State. The reasons for the first have been fully set forth, and we are now a unit on the subject. The subject of county supervision is now under consideration. Let us take a glance at our present school system. We have a State School Commissioner elected by the people to serve for a term of three years. It is his business to look after the general interests of education throughout the State. The next officers we find below him are the county auditors, men elected for different purposes than that of looking after the educational interests of their counties, and there are no officers standing between them and the School Commissioner. Next below we have the township boards of education. They are charged with special duties pertaining to the education of the townships—the levying of taxes, the building and repairing of school-houses, the transfer of territory from one

sub-district to another, etc. Next below these, we have the boards of local directors in the sub-districts, consisting of three members, who employ teachers, pay them their wages, etc. We have boards of examiners whose duties are confined to the examining of teachers and the granting of certificates.

Now, there are many reasons why county school superintendents should be placed between the Commissioner and the local school officers. In the first place, it is necessary that the proper statistical information coming from the district teachers may be able to reach the Commissioner. Again, if we have county superintendencies, schools can be brought more on the same plan, on the same general principles. There is no argument in favor of supervision in our towns and cities which will not apply with equal force in favor of supervision in our rural districts. The superintendent should be charged with the personal supervision of the schools of his county; he should be required to visit them, and spend his time in them; he should instruct the auditors in the discharge of their duties; he should be, perhaps, *ex-officio* chairman of the board of examiners in the county;—some have gone so far as to entrust him with the examination of the teachers of the county, and I am not sure but that would be a wise arrangement. It is so in Pennsylvania, and may be so in other States for aught I know. These, I think, are sufficient duties to employ one man. How shall he be elected? There are three different ways by which he might reach his office: First, by direct election from the people; second, he might be appointed by one, two, or more of the county officers forming a council for that purpose; third, he might be elected for a term of two years by the township board of education. There are reasons for and against each of these three methods. My opinion inclines to the last named, and there are strong reasons for it I think. Let the superintendent feel his connection directly with the township boards of education, and let them feel an interest in him. Remove him sufficiently far from politics, so that his election may not be made a subject of political scramble. His salary may be determined either by the bill appointing him or the body electing him. I think the salary had better be fixed by law, and be in proportion to the number of youth in the schools of the county. First, let us labor for the establishment of a normal school, and then for the office of county superintendent.

MR. HENKLE. Two years ago I wrote a report at Toledo, in which I suggested that the superintendent should be made chairman of the township boards of education, and also that it could not be expected that he would be selected as a resident of the county. If the people of Columbus could get a better superintendent by going to Mt. Vernon, they would not feel bound to take a Columbus man. I think if the salary was estimated, as Capt. Mitchell suggested, on the number of children in the county, that in some counties it would run up as high as \$5,000; that if the law fixed this, I think it should be optional that they be empowered to employ assistant superintendents, and not pay the salary to one man. In those large counties, one man can not attend to all the work. I heartily approve of county superintendencies. I put normal schools second to them. County superintendencies will remedy many of the evils we have. They pride themselves in Pennsylvania on their school law; but the zeal that is manifested in many parts of the State, is due more to the fact that they

have county superintendencies than anything else. In 1856, when I was in Pennsylvania, the highest salary paid was \$1,500, in Lancaster county, to Mr. Wickersham, but in many of the counties they paid only \$500. I think the salary should be fixed high enough, so that a good man may be secured. I think we are ready to have a committee to memorialize the Legislature on the subject.

**MR. BOLTON.** I hail from Pennsylvania, and have been in the habit of regarding the law there as a better one than that of the State of Ohio. I may not be right. The Dutch of Pennsylvania are exceedingly hard, even if they have a good law, to move in the way of progress. The progress made is largely due to the county superintendents. Go into the counties of this State, and is it not the fact that in nine cases out of ten, the boards of education pay no attention whatever to the character of the certificate which the candidate presents? I believe the candidates are seldom asked to present them. In Pennsylvania it is different. The county superintendents come in direct contact with the boards of education, and they speak to them especially on this point. They know the standing of every teacher in the county. Then again at stated times, the county superintendent comes around in different parts of the county, and talks with the people. Books are kept noting the punctuality of the students, their standing in recitations noted down every month, and their deportment. Scholars look forward to the time when the county superintendent shall come around and look at the register, and see who stands the best.

**MR. HANCOCK.** I think a well managed normal school could accomplish a greater work of good, if there were the right kind of young men and women to attend it—these county superintendencies would have a tendency to furnish. We ought not to attempt to carry on too many things at the same time. We ought to concentrate our efforts to accomplish one or two things at the next session of the Legislature. The thing we have resolved to attend to now, is the normal school, and let us concentrate our efforts on that. There is nothing in my mind more desirable than county superintendencies, but I think it had better be made a subject for our next annual meeting.

**MR. CORY.** I do not know that there is any necessity of talking any more over the matter, for the subject has been talked over, and we are probably all of a mind on it, and I do not know but we can secure this thing, in addition to what has been proposed, just as well as not.

**MR. HENKLE.** If I had twenty votes to give, I would give nineteen for county superintendencies and one for normal school. I believe it is the most important, and that even now we had better put county superintendencies first, and let the normal school go. The whole subject, both normal schools and county superintendencies, ought to be put in the hands of a committee, and let them work the thing the best way they can. If they can get a normal school, let them take that, and if they can get both a normal school and county superintendencies, let them take them both.

## ADDRESSES.

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### INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

BY PRESIDENT ELI T. TAPPAN, OF ATHENS, OHIO.

The revolving year has brought together the teachers of Ohio, to advise with each other, to devise new things and to discuss again old methods, to aid each other with counsel, to enjoy for a day or two each other's society, to cheer each other with good words, and thus to obtain new strength and new zeal for their great work.

In my address to you this evening, I shall attempt to state a few of the important topics which at this time demand the attention of teachers, beginning with those matters which relate more particularly to our own State.

The Ohio Teachers' Association has in the seventeen years of its existence, first reformed the school-system of the State, and then continued to give to it that life and spirit which have produced the most vigorous growth. When we look back over the history of these years; when we recount the great men whose names have brightened the fair fame of our State, some of whom have passed away to a higher life; when we see how the influence of our past labors has been felt in every school district of the State; we are filled with a sense of gratitude to Him whose servants we are, that He has so blessed the work of our hands. Yet, however much has been, more remains to be done.

It has been said by a great English lawyer, that the principal thing to be accomplished by the British Government, King, Lords and Commons, with all the machinery of Courts, was simply to get twelve good men into a jury box. It may be said with more perfect accuracy that the greatest object to be attained by all our school-system, laws and regulations, State, county, township and sub-district officers is this: to place a competent teacher in every school-house. Of the twenty thousand teachers in the State, how many are there that we here assembled would consider competent to govern and instruct our children? This question brings home to us how much remains to be done. To increase the number of good teachers, to supply this demand: he who can solve this problem will benefit the State far more than he who increases the quantity of corn or grass grown on an acre of ground.

There are more than enough of those who are willing to be paid for "keeping a school;" there is always in every branch of human occupation an over-supply of those who are unable to do good work. On the other hand, with us as in every other profession, there is a great want of persons to fill the most responsible positions. For example, many of our towns are now without a school-superintendent. Varied accomplishments are required to fulfill the

duties of a city superintendent, much tact, industry and scholarship; the supply of such men is less than the demand.

Of the agencies for increasing the number of good teachers, the county board of examiners is one of the most important. These boards are the door-keepers of the profession; none can enter without their permission. In many counties of the State, they are of but little use; they admit so many that are incompetent, that, practically, there is no exclusion. In those counties where a wiser policy prevails, where the number of certificates issued is not much over the number of teachers needed, the effect has been a steady and rapid improvement in the character of the schools. Every member of this Association, every friend of education, can help to bring this about, by advising the examiners to exercise more watchfulness, and by sustaining them publicly when they do their duty in this respect. These gentlemen are subject to a constant pressure, coming generally from unwise boards of directors. The number of certificates issued should not much exceed the number of schools in each county. This plan eliminates the inefficient, and accomplishes the very object of the law, which is to secure the best teachers. It would be adopted in many counties, if the examiners were cordially sustained by half a dozen active friends of common schools. The responsibility is upon us, we must uphold the hands of the judges.

In many counties a portion of the teachers, in special districts, are not required to have county certificates. So far as I have been able to observe and to learn from others, the district boards of examiners do more harm than good. They rarely pursue any systematic mode of examination. I suggest to the Association whether every teacher in the State ought not to be required to hold either a county or a State certificate.

County supervision would help very much to place a competent teacher in every school-house. Normal schools are needed for the same purpose. It is sufficient to refer to these two very important subjects, as they are to be among the stated topics for discussion at this convention.

The high schools, seminaries, academies, and colleges, have always been the principal source for supplying competent teachers for our common schools. The higher institutions of learning must continue to supply the raw material of teachers. The county superintendent and examiners may select or reject, but they can only in an indirect manner increase the number of persons who have sufficient scholarship to be teachers. The normal school may give the professional instruction, may teach how to teach, but this science must rest upon a foundation of general scholarship.

The teacher ought to know more than the very thing he is teaching. No one can be a good teacher of arithmetic who has not either mastered the first elements of algebra, or obtained by thorough drill that mental discipline which is usually acquired by the study of algebra. The teacher who has learned at least one language besides his own, and has compared the derivation of words and the structure of sentences in his own language with those of another, has by this means obtained a knowledge of general grammar, the science of language, which makes him better qualified to teach any grammar whatever. So it is in every science. It is very true, that the most profound scholar may be utterly incompetent to teach; and for this reason, the student who has just graduated

with the highest honors, ought to attend a normal school, and study the profession of teaching, before presuming to rank as a real teacher. On the other hand, a good education is absolutely essential to the good teacher; for no one can give to another that which he does not possess himself.

A most common failing in the profession is ignorance. Notwithstanding the low standard required by most of the county examiners of Ohio, yet last year only one man in eighteen received a certificate to teach for two years, and only one woman in thirty-seven. For two years the State board of examiners invited candidates for the highest rank in the profession, they placed their programme of subjects not much beyond the curriculum of any country academy, they declared that scholarship was not the main consideration, and that professional ability and experience would be counted in place of scholarship to a certain extent; yet only fifteen persons of the twenty thousand teachers in the State ever asked for a certificate. Many teachers of high position gave as a reason for not applying, that the programme of subjects was too difficult, or that they were not prepared. Is there not reason to say, that a common failing in the profession is ignorance?

It is undoubtedly true that no other profession contains so many learned men and women, no other profession has so many who are distinguished for extensive and exact scholarship, no other profession has proportionally so few who deserve the title of *ignoramus*; but we can derive no consolation from such a comparison. It is our business to possess knowledge, because it is our business to give instruction.

Since the recruits in the ranks of our profession must come from the high schools and colleges, it is important, 1st. That the number of pupils in these higher institutions of learning should be increased; and 2d. That a larger portion of the graduates of these schools should become teachers.

The total number of pupils enrolled last year in all the colleges, seminaries, normal schools, academies, and high schools, was less than the thirty-second part of the number enrolled in all the schools of the State. Of all the children that attend the common schools of Ohio, not one in thirty ever goes far enough to enter any higher school. In many places the high schools are unpopular and regarded with a jealous eye, just on account of the small number who enter them. There are many places where the high schools are not yet firmly established. Every year we hear of some one where good teachers are allowed to depart, and cheaper ones are substituted, or the course of study is cut down. The classics are thrown out, or something else, according to the whim or the prejudice of ignorant boards of education. Sometimes the number of teachers is diminished, so that those remaining must stint their work; sometimes the high school itself is discontinued. There were not so many high schools in the State last year as there were six years ago. There ought to be twice as many.

This matter will come before you, perhaps, in discussing the subject of graded schools in rural districts. On this as well as some other things, we teachers of Ohio should be aggressive; we have rested long enough, we must take a step in advance,—we must move in order to show that we are alive.

The number of pupils in the high schools already existing, will grow with the growth of popular intelligence, and with the improvement of the schools them-

selves. Each of these agencies will react upon the other. This is shown by the fact that the average number of pupils in each high school last year was sixty-three, being an increase of one-half over the average number six years before, when it was forty-two. This tends to strengthen the existing schools as well as to increase the number of persons in the State fit to teach.

Something may be done to expedite this desirable end of enlarging the number of students, particularly the number of good students in the higher institutions of learning. Let the policy of rewards for good scholarship and conduct be engrafted upon the school system. Every child in school is rewarded now, and those receive the highest rewards who show the best conduct, the greatest diligence, and the most intelligence. *The reward consists in a better education.* Let this natural plan be carried a step farther. Let every boy and girl who can achieve a certain degree of excellence in the high school be sent to college; and let them be helped to maintain themselves there so long as they continue to show extraordinary ability and industry. Let the State help to educate in her universities, every boy who may show in his high school that he is one whose thorough education would be a benefit to the State; and let similar institutions be founded or endowed for the education of girls of superior character and ability.

Such a system of rewards is in accordance with the school system itself. It rewards those who are worthy, and the rewards consist in the means of obtaining a better education. Such a system is nothing new. It has been tried for centuries in older countries, and has received the approval of ages of experience. It is now in operation to a certain extent in some of the colleges of this country.

All over the State of Ohio, there are youth of both sexes who have more than common natural ability, who are capable of receiving more than a common education, and who do not get it, but would gladly take it if they could receive a little help. These are the very ones who are to lead in after life, their education is a matter of importance to the State; the future advancement and welfare of the State depend very much upon these persons and upon their education.

If in the city of Cincinnati some benevolent men would give five thousand dollars a year to help support, while they attend the high school, those boys and girls who can show a record of honorable conduct and good scholarship in the school below, the benefit accruing to the city and to the cause of education would far surpass all the good that will be derived from the expenditure of thirty thousand dollars yearly in the salaries of professors and lecturers in a university.

Millions of dollars have been spent in this western country in founding colleges and in endowing professorships; a large portion of this money has been a mere waste. If one half of it had been expended in endowing scholarships for worthy and needy students, to be selected upon thorough examinations, there would be more students in all the colleges and higher grades of schools than there now are, and they would be of a superior class.

At present the educational interests of the State are not harmonious. The common schools and the seminaries and colleges are to a certain extent at cross purposes. This ought not to be and need not be. These rewards for scholar-

ship, consisting in the means of obtaining a still better education, would remove this discord, harmonize all educational interests, and blend the schools of all grades in one united whole.

The details of such a policy can not be given now. They need not be uniform. The manner of giving rewards and the conditions attached need not be the same in different districts. In one place, they may be founded by private benevolence; in an other, by the public authorities. Where such rewards are the result of individual action, there has been great variety in the conditions. Already in the Cincinnati high schools, medals are given as rewards for mathematical skill. It would be better to give books,—it would be better still, to give the means of obtaining a more perfect education.

My present object is to suggest this idea to the teachers of Ohio, in the hope that it will be more thoroughly examined, and that it may lead to bringing a great many more students into all the higher grades of schools, and to preparing a great many more to take upon themselves the duties of teachers.

The same policy might be used to induce a greater number of good scholars to become teachers. Let the State provide for the expense of training at a normal school, every student who can enter with a certain amount of scholarship and who will agree to teach in the common schools of the State for a certain length of time. This condition of teaching for a time in the common schools might be required of those who are assisted to a collegiate education.

Returning peace has brought back to our ranks many who had been in the military service, and the attention of people is given once more to the schools. Love of our country has for several years grown stronger by vigorous exercise. Now, however, it can no longer be displayed by the sacrifices of war; let us hope that it will show itself by a more active and lively interest in the cause of education, upon which, above all other things, the welfare of the State depends. Already this is so in many of our sister States. The general government has also done much to educate the freedmen, who certainly needed it. May the day soon come when an education will be given to their poor white neighbors, who need it still more!

The activity which was seen everywhere during the war, is not to be followed by supineness. This whole people is as busily engaged this year as it was three years ago. In every branch of industry there is a demand for laborers, which the returning armies have scarcely been able to meet. Those loving impulses which then carried forward the Christian and the Sanitary Commissions, are now moving to aid and educate the freedmen, and to extend the influence of the church and of the school.

Everywhere, not only in our own State and country, but throughout the enlightened world, we seem to be in the midst of revolutions. Events follow each other in rapid succession. Old institutions are rudely shaken: those which have no solid foundation are overthrown; while those that have, are made more solid by the shaking. Injustice and falsehood are driven back; justice and truth are sustained.

These revolutions and convulsions in public affairs have had their counterpart in the world of thought. Old theories and principles have been attacked. Men inquire into the reasons of things, new modes of thought are advanced;



the laws of the human mind and the relations of mind and matter are discussed with greater force and earnestness than ever they were before. Men are resolved to prove all things. May they hold fast to that which is good!

The investigation of the nature of the human mind, its motives and modes of action, is necessary to a correct science of teaching. Hence, no other class is so deeply interested as teachers in the philosophical discussions which have been conducted by the greatest intellects of our race. There is a fashion in science as well as in dress. The views and writings of some giant mind give color and tone to the doctrines of many others who thus form a school of philosophy.

This is not the occasion to give an analysis of this contest of giants. It will be sufficient to state a principal distinctive feature of the contending schools.

On the one extreme, we find those who adopt the positivism of the French philosopher Conte. They profess to deal only with positives, with real existences, by which they mean things perceptible to the senses. They exclude from the domain of philosophy every thing but natural phenomena, with their invariable laws, which laws are gathered by inductions from observed coexistence and succession—that is, they reject all spiritual existence, and acknowledge only matter and the laws of matter. The logical ground upon which they stand is, that you can not demonstrate the existence of those things which they ignore.

Of this school, though not at the extreme, are Mr. Buckle, Mr. Spencer, Dr. Draper, and, in a modified way, Mr. Mill. Mr. Buckle, the historian, holds that the discovery of new facts in natural science is the great cause of human progress; that moral causes have little to do with it. Mr. Spencer, in his moral education, can find no higher motive for doing right than that it is expedient. The same writer places mere life as the highest and most valuable thing, and its preservation as the first object of education. Dr. Draper can trace the rise and fall of nations entirely to causes in the physical world, ignoring the hand of a divine being, and even the influence of man's moral nature.

Of an opposite school are those who carry to an extreme the Platonic idealistic philosophy. They assert that the only real world is the ideal; that the impressions on our minds may be without any corresponding facts in the material world; that we have no demonstrative evidence of the existence of matter; and, therefore, they reject all material existence, and adhere to the ideal alone.

Between these extremes there is room for every shade of opinion; but of late the fashion inclines more to positivism. In the pulpit we hear talk of the divinity of men and of nature, and so on; politicians discuss statistics and settle questions of human rights upon the scale of the dollar—they can demonstrate that liberty pays better than slavery; and teachers declare that education ought to be practical and useful, by which they mean that children should be taught the most approved methods of satisfying the stomach and covering the back.

I shall not attempt to discuss this materialism, this "dirt philosophy;" I shall only endeavor to state fairly and without argument the true basis for a teacher of youth to stand upon.

A man consists of a soul in a body. To forget the soul in any system of philosophy, is to forget the better part. Life, mere life, is not the first thing. Health is of more value than life; for without health, life is not to be desired.

The mind is more valuable than the body—health of mind more valuable than health of body; and more to be coveted than all things is, health of soul.

There is a higher life than that of the body and the intellect—a life of self-devotion, a life of generous action, a life of faith and love. To educate these, to draw out and exercise these qualities, this is a higher education than any mere physical or mental development. This is an education which best fits for life and best for eternity.

Health is necessary for growth; but the growth of the body is limited. Who can assign a limit to the growth of a healthy soul?

The possessor of a healthy soul trusts in the right, because it is right; or, in other words, he has faith in God. He delights in noble works, in serving his neighbor, and, if need be, in dying for his country or for his fellow man, and all because it is right, or, in other words, for the love of God.

The most valuable education is that which contributes to the purity and integrity of the soul. It gives force and point to all other education. A man may have a healthy body, and live and die merely as a brute. A man may have, in addition to a healthy body, also a healthy intellect, and he may live a mere selfish being, only aiming at the gratification of his own refined taste, only gaining knowledge for his own pleasure, a kind of intellectual miser, and when he dies he leaves no place vacant. If to these qualities be added health of soul, at once he fills his appointed place in the world; he is a complete man, he lives in all that is around him, his work is for a purpose, his intellectual labor is for some good to others, and his death is a loss to the world.

More than this, the possessor of a healthy soul has a strength of will, a steadiness and singleness of purpose, which make him more capable of intellectual exertion and of bodily endurance. This is corroborated by the observation and experience of every one who hears me. Who has not seen how, in contests between intellects of equal strength, the one which had the better trained will was sure to gain the victory? What, again, can be more utterly helpless than a demoralized army?

Health of soul is not to be coveted on account only of the strength and life which it gives to the possessor, but because it is itself the only true life. It is not only the means of all that is best and greatest, but it is itself the greatest end—"this is the kingdom of Heaven." This is the lever that shall move the world, and the fulcrum upon which it rests is the Lord Almighty.

These truths appear so simple that the only wonder is how they could be doubted. Their application to our daily work is just as plain.

Health depends upon training. So far as human agency can effect it, this is true of body, mind, and soul. It is true not only of individuals, but of nations. The growth of the United States as a nation, during the late four years struggle for existence, was owing far more to the severe training undergone than to any mere act of statesmanship, even the abolition of slavery. The training made the nation strong, active, and self-reliant, but still more reliant upon the success of a good cause. The training gave the nation a knowledge of itself and of its duty. Of these results of training, the wealth and power, the good laws and the acts of justice are only the effects.

The average attendance at the Ohio University during the past year, has been

about one hundred and sixty students; about three-fourths of these had been in the military service. At first this was a cause of alarm, it was feared that disorder would prevail. The result has been at the opposite extreme. In the whole history of the university there has never been known so good order,—never before was there a year of so little disturbance; there was never before so much study, or so much accomplished. The army had been to these young men a first rate school. They had acquired a training, physical, mental, and moral, which prepared them for any labor and insured success. They had learned to obey—not as slaves, but as intelligent beings; they had offered their lives to their country: some had been wounded and imprisoned, some of them had lost an arm or a leg; their patriotism had grown with exercise, and with this had grown other noble virtues, generosity and integrity. Did any of these consider life the first object of education, according to the materialist positive philosophy? Can you conceive of such men basing their morals upon a calculation of expediency? With the history of these men and of this war before us, can any one believe that the destiny of our nation depends in the end merely upon its soil and climate?

There is a God, a God of love, who protects and gives life to all things, and whose service is the highest life. Upon him depends our future. Without him is no true life, no useful or practical education. In one word, the fundamental law of all moral training, considering the subject solely in an educational point of view, is this: "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind. This is the first and great commandment."

## ANNUAL ADDRESS.

BY S. S. FISHER, ESQ., OF CINCINNATI.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I was invited a week or two since, to make, as I supposed, one of several short speeches, to be delivered at this annual meeting of your Association. It was less than a week ago that I learned, from the newspapers, that my short speech had grown to the dignity of an "annual address."

A variety of tempting subjects were proffered me by sympathizing friends, most of which were promptly laid aside, and for the reason that, they required, for their proper discussion, the knowledge and experience of a working teacher. Now, my teaching days have long since passed away. It is twelve years since I turned from school-rooms to court-rooms, from recitation books to reports, from the flexible ratan to the strong arm of the law, from the graceful lines of a copy-book hand to the illegible scrawl of the practising attorney.

Let me stand excused, then, if I decline to discourse of technical subjects; of normal schools and object lessons; of national bureaus and school-room desks; of the true order of studies, or of the study of true order.

There is one subject upon which I should like to speak; one which, in the hands of one of your own number, might be a most popular theme, and call forth your admiring applause. From my stand-point I fear it may not prove so attractive, and yet it is just from the stand-point of another profession, from the look-out of the world of out-siders, that for at least *once* you should be willing to give a fair hearing to a short review of "Teaching, as a Profession."

No occupation can be more delightful, and few more instructive, than to watch the development of anything that God has made subject to the great law of growth. It is a charming pastime to plant a tiny seed in some parlor-garden where the successive stages of germination can easily be followed. The principle of life struggles within the shell for liberty. Fed by the moisture and the light, it acquires strength to burst its bonds and peep forth upon the world. Now timidly, yet trustingly, the white and slender root feels its way downward through the mossy soil. Then, with hands outstretched to the light, two emerald leaflets begin, with generous rivalry, a race for the sky. Then follow other leaves, and others yet again, until stalk supports leaf, and branch shoots from stalk; while amid stalk and branch and leaf nestle fruits and flowers blushing and blooming with beauty.

But this is *soulless* growth. There is a higher plane of enjoyment which none can know but those to whom it has been permitted to watch the growth of a human intellect. The budding dawn of perception, of instinct, of thought; the unfoldings of the germ, anxiously awaited, and, in time, beheld with unmixed delight, weakness changing to strength, ignorance to knowledge, wandering glances to fixed attention, meaningless purring to bewitching prattle.

It is a joy to *see* these successive developments. How much greater the

pleasure, if it be also our privilege to assist in producing them. If this growth, so wonderful, may be shaped by us; these little lips be taught to lisp our speech—this soul be filled with our thoughts—this heart throb with our emotions; if this being that is to think and act may be made to think and act after our model—to become the embodiment of our ideal, the expression of our thought—what a field of engrossing labor and pleasing anxiety does such a possibility open before us!

Now, to soul and growth add time and éternity. Let it be ours to know that this, our training, is to fit this being with the armor and the weapons with which it is to combat all the rugged issues of life, to provide it with the intelligence for useful citizenship, for business excellence, or for efficient benevolence; to invest it, in short, with the panoply of a noble manhood. Then, indeed, will the labor of training become invested with an absorbing interest and a solemn earnestness that will fill the heart and engage the noblest powers of the mind.

This is the platform of the teacher. At the head of all trades, vocations, professions, or employments, save one, I place the faithful instructor. As eternity is superior to time, and soul to mere intelligence, so they who teach for immortality must take rank before those whose instruction stops with the knowledge of earthly things. Therefore, let the minister of the gospel take the first place, but the second for the teacher. Do I over-estimate the importance of his position? I hardly think it possible to do so. Look at the other learned professions. The physician proposes to cure our bodily ailments. His domain is the exceptional world of disease and accident. We may or may not need his services. He may or may not be able to afford us relief. At the best, among the wrangling schools of medicines, the varying phases of health and sickness, the imperfections of the best diagnosis and the subtilty of diseases which baffle all skill, his profession becomes a system of educated guessing, in which mistakes are sometimes more fortunate than all the reasoning of science and the education of experience.

The lawyer would guard our property and our liberty from violence or fraud. But the cases with which he has to deal are even more exceptional than those of his brother, the doctor. Few men escape an attack of sickness at some period of life, but there have been those who have been known to pass through a long and virtuous existence without a lawsuit. At the best, it can hardly be said, that it is the vocation of the lawyer to fit men for the better exercise of charity, public spirit, or enlightened citizenship, through the practice of his profession.

Look at the mechanic arts! We are greatly indebted to them for our comfort; they have saved for us much labor. But their sphere is limited, and they deal wholly with externals. They provide laborers for man, but do not occupy themselves with the higher duty of fitting man for intelligent and profitable labor.

The same remark may be applied to the pursuits of commerce and agriculture. It is with body, not mind, that they mainly have to do; and if the world depended wholly upon them it might become rich and it might grow fat—it would never be very wise.

But there is no profession of trade that does not need the schoolmaster. He can benefit both sexes, and increase the usefulness of all degrees and conditions

of men. Unless he lay the foundation, law, physic, or divinity, can rear no superstructure. He leads the forlorn hope of the storming party that attacks the fortress of ignorance, and unless he makes a breach and effects a lodgment, the rest of the army may as well remain in camp.

I shall waste no time in discoursing of the benefits of education or of the value of knowledge. If we can conceive of a man utterly without it, we shall have for our conception nothing but a brute, handsomer but more helpless than the monkey. A thoroughly ignorant man might as well be brainless; and what then? Now, he is "lord of creation." As an animal merely he would be its slave. He has eyes, but he can not see like the eagle; he has ears, but he can not hear like the horse; he has a nose, but he can not smell like the hound; he has teeth, but they can not seize and tear like those of the panther; arms, but they can not hug as tightly as the affectionate bear; a body, but not defended by hair or feathers from summer's sun or winter's cold; legs, but they can not keep pace with the deer; feet, but they can not grasp like the hawk or monkey. He can not live in water like a fish, or float upon it like the nautilus; he can not fly in the air like a bird, nor skim the surface of the earth like the reindeer. Poor fellow, with neither claws nor teeth nor speed with which to catch his food, he can not live on grass, nor well on raw grain and roots. As an animal only, he is the prey or the sport or the laughing-stock of every beast and bird and fish. They may run and fly and swim all round him, and if he did not like it, what could he do about it?

But give him a mind, and cultivate that mind by knowledge, and how all this is changed. With a bit of glass before his feeble eyes, he can look into regions hidden from the eagle; with a little tube at his ear, he can hear the beating of your heart or the heaving of your lungs. The bird can outfly him; but he can dispatch the leaden bullet to overtake it in its flight, or he can send the telegraphic word that outstrips the swift journeyings of the carrier pigeon. The reindeer may beat him in a race, but when he mounts the locomotive and turns on the steam, the reindeer must "look out for the engine" and clear the track. The fish swims where he sinks; but he launches his steamer, and goes across the sea with a load that would break the backs of a hundred whales. What has made this weak being so powerful? I answer, with Bacon, "Knowledge is Power."

But here some one says, "all teachers are not schoolmasters, nor is all knowledge to be found within the school-room." True, my friend, and yet, as we have said before, the teacher must lay the foundation, must form habits of study, of analysis, of thought; this done, and the pupil is able to advance by himself without embarrassment. Without this preparation for useful study, he may wander amid libraries of books, and yet not find one thought worth the taking; but with mind well trained, habits of study well formed, and an ambition well directed, he can learn all that the world has to teach him. Take this boy-student and fashion him as you will, for here is the substratum of lawyer, or doctor, or minister, or mechanic, or farmer; yea, even of schoolmaster himself. All life in one sense is a period of pupilage. The world, in this sense, is a vast school-room. No man can honestly pursue any calling without acquiring real knowledge and genuine cultivation in many directions. Let him be farmer, and in-

telligently till the soil, and read books and papers and associate freely with men; let him be merchant, and succeed in his ventures by a careful study of events, of demand and supply, of war and peace, of plenty and famine; let him be mechanic, toiling at his bench, thinking at his work, controlling the powers and forces of nature until they do his bidding and add to the stock of human inventions, studying the laws of rest and motion, which waiting for his call, lie dormant in mind and wave and air—all these men are scholars in God's life school, learning essentially the same lessons, so that at the end you shall find that all, by different roads, have arrived at nearly the same goal.

But while life teaches so much, books teach much more. Through them the past comes down to us. It unfolds its history, tells us of its experiments, of its failures, of its successes; teaches us what to adopt, what to avoid. We need not begin anew in every generation and plod through a weary course of experiment in every direction. We may begin where our fathers left off, and go on toward perfection. The teacher holds in great measure the key to the old records. Let us ponder them well, for we shall often find, as Chaucer says:

"Out of the old fields, as men saith,  
Cometh all this new corn from year to year:  
So out of all old books in good faith,  
Cometh all this new science that men love."

To the vast benefit which the teacher confers upon others, we must not forget to add the gain which comes to himself. Has it never happened that, when endeavoring to explain some difficult problem, or engaged in the preparation of some lesson, a light has seemed to blaze upon you, and a knowledge of the subject to dawn upon you, such as you had never known before? Why, this is the experience of all who teach *anything*. If you are faithful and successful in imparting knowledge, you are sure of at least one good pupil, and that is yourself; *you* must learn through your class what may cause you many a heartache.

Herein, let me say to you, you have again the advantage of your brethren of other professions. No sensible doctor undertakes to prescribe for himself, and it has passed into a proverb that "the man who is his own lawyer has a fool for a client." But teaching is beyond all question the best way of learning, and from *you*, if you be faithful to your vocation, there can be but one answer to the question: "Thou that teachest another, teachest thou not thyself?"

"He that directs the wandering traveler  
Doth, as it were, light another's torch by his own;  
Which gives him ne'er the less of light, for that  
It gave another."

Again, I say, I magnify the office of the teacher. As mind is superior to matter, as knowledge is better than ignorance, as education is the necessary preparation for useful citizenship, for intelligent money-getting, and for cultivated life: so he who dispenses her favors, at whose bidding the darkness retires and light dawns upon chaotic mind, must hold a foremost place among the benefactors of earth, must be accounted leader in the host of civilization.

The value of some things is more fully appreciated from the lack of them. And how forcibly from this stand-point does the importance of the teacher's

mission impress itself upon us. This is our national anniversary—a day unparalleled in our history or in that of any land. The first day in the history of the world, that a nation ever met to thank God that it existed,—*a free people under a free constitution*. And then we recall the dark days of rebellion and war, with their accumulating horrors—and, looking back from effect to cause, behold that vast expanse of territory—that mighty population—those haughty States shadowed not only by the darkness of a bitter curse but of woeful ignorance. No free schools stand like the mile-stones on every road. The boy who is to be the man, and not only the man but the citizen, grows up under no restraint of discipline, with no cultivation of his mental powers. Want of the latter, makes him a bigot; want of the former, makes him a rebel. Into this darkness it was necessary that light should come, even if the source of the illumination should be the flashing of steel and the blazing of artillery.

If the profession of teaching be one of such dignity and promise, do we ask too much when we demand that it *shall* be—a *profession*?

The lexicographers define this word to mean "the business which one *professes* to understand and to follow for subsistence." I hardly think this can fairly be said to include that business which one follows, without preparation, upon some wild theory of the force of genius which is to carry him through; or that employment, which can scarcely be called a *business*, since it is only a halting place in a bread and butter land, while waiting for the *true* business of life to "turn up."

If we are to rank your calling as a profession, we shall insist, first, on special training for it. It is too much the fashion, now-a-days, to suppose that the man or woman who is good for nothing else will make a first-rate teacher; accordingly they flock from all quarters to the not very awful presence of some board of county examiners, good, easy gentlemen, not too sure of their own ground, and easily self-persuaded into believing that the tyro knows more than themselves, and when armed with a certificate, they take possession of our school-houses, and undertake to prevent the education of our children. I say prevent, for it can not be denied that an incompetent teacher is a stumbling-block rather than a help to the learner. Young men teach on their way to college, while in college, and while preparing for their profession. Do you ask them if they have made any special preparation for the work which they so confidently undertake? They receive your question with astonishment. Preparation? Why, no! *any body* can teach! Young ladies just from the district school, with the commonest of common-school education, rush with a sublime self-confidence from the scholar's desk to the teacher's chair. "My dear young lady," you venture to suggest, "this is a very responsible calling. Do you feel quite prepared to undertake it?" "Prepared? Why, no, I never thought of that; you see there are so few genteel occupations which a woman can undertake, and teaching is one of them."

Other professions understand this better. This young lawyer did not walk from college, or from the high school, straight to the courts, to be surrounded with clients, and to receive a large professional income.

He entered a lawyer's office. He pored over ponderous tomes of technical matter. He copied, and fluttered around the clerk's office, keeping the docket



and carrying the green bag of his preceptor. Thence he went to the law school, and took notes of prosy lectures, debated in moot courts, fathomed the mystery of John Doe and Richard Roe, and flattered himself that he understood the "rule in Shelly's case." He passed through the ordeal of an examining committee of old foxes, anxious to pluck the young goose before them. Went before some thick-headed justice, who, "like necessity, knew no law," to try his first case upon a contingent fee, and was handsomely beaten; rose timidly in some higher court to be brow-beaten by some older practitioner, or snubbed by some crusty judge; and so, through "gain and loss, through glory and disgrace, by the training of success and the better training of defeat, with slowly accumulating practice and a more slowly growing purse," he is now, after his years of preparation, just beginning to feel assured of success.

The doctor over the way, was not called upon to cure all the wealthy patients two days after leaving school. No; his training was as severe as that of his legal brother. A course of office study, and then a couple of terms at the medical college in some far-off city. Dry discourses on old bones. Agreeable practice as hospital assistant, holding cases of instruments for surgeons who perform "such beautiful operations," severe training in the dissecting-room, experiments upon future patients foreshadowed by experiments upon cats and dogs. Then, when he may safely write his name and affix M D.,—nobody wants him. At length, one gratis patient, then another whom charity compels him to supply with medicines. At last one who pays a little but grumbles a great deal, and so on, by the most conservative progress, toward name and fame.

Why, this mechanic must have his apprenticeship. He must "serve his time" under a taskmaster,—must fetch and carry for his fellow-workmen,—must file up old bolts and practice upon the heaviest and roughest parts of the machine, before he can be trusted with the manipulation of the delicate and beautiful.

You must prepare, even to sell goods. Beginning as the errand-boy, advancing to the in-door salesman, the out-door agent, the partner, the proprietor of the establishment.

I recall, most vividly, the unhappy days, now long since passed, when for one dollar a week, I opened the shutters, and lighted the fires, and swept the store, and carried the bundles, between the hours of five A. M. and ten P. M., in a retail dry-goods store in New York.

It is no answer to say that school-life is the teacher's apprenticeship. The other callings have this school-life in common with you, but there is something more to be learned—it is the *art* of their profession. So with you. You must study the art of teaching as an independent calling—study its scope, its needs, its relation to the taught—its appliances—its aims.

If you hope to battle successfully against ignorance, you must go into the armory and learn the use of every weapon, must become familiar with grand strategy and field tactics, must fight in the ranks, or put on the modest uniform of a subaltern, before you have a right to direct the armies and be saluted "General."

This military figure leads me to remind you of the fact, that even for fighting the nation demands adequate preparation. She has established her schools for cadets, military and naval, and the war just passed has abundantly proven the

value of the instruction which they gave. Why, a man who, without preliminary training, should enter the prize ring, and attempt to pound his opponent's countenance, would be accounted an idiot by the most illiterate of the "fancy."

The military academy of the teacher is the Normal School. It is his theological seminary, his law school, his medical college, his apprenticeship, and his career as errand boy. It belongs to *him*. It does not profess to give a better general education to the aspirant for the honors of any other profession. It is the special school for training teachers to teach.

No one should go there to learn arithmetic; but how to *teach* arithmetic. The branches to be taught should be mastered before the Normal School is reached; for it would be a sad waste of time to attempt to instruct pupils in the best way of teaching that which they know nothing about. But the pupil, being already well educated, enters the precincts of this seminary to learn from experience and practical experiment that great art which underlies the constitution of society, and upon which we depend for so much of our wisdom and happiness,—the art of *imparting*.

One of my predecessors in the school board of Cincinnati, Mr. King, said in a report before this body :

"The point to which your memorialists would fix your consideration, is the unimportance of other details in the school system as compared with the teacher. Those grand results are accomplished, not by the array of schools or school houses, or the lavishing of money merely, but by the men and women within. Our schools must be to our teachers as water to its level. They rise and sink together. No parade of statistics, no swelling tables of pupils, schools, or school funds, no yearly congratulations that progress is onward and all is well, are deserving of your thought, so long as there is reason to doubt or suspect the ability and fitness of those who are the heart, the animating, informing and vital spirit of the whole system.

"Without good teachers, not here or there in favored localities only, but everywhere—abounding in every county, and, were it possible, in every township and school-house—there *is* no system. To see to this, your memorialists conceive it to be a duty than which the General Assembly has none that is higher or more imperative.

"It has been thought wise, by our laws, to prohibit the growth of the thistle. We pray you suppress the further encouragement of the *incapable teacher*, who scatters evils more noxious than thistles."

It were easy to show that the work of normal instruction should be undertaken by every State; that the money spent for the support of common schools is worse than wasted where it is spent upon incompetent instructors; that we provide good buildings and good ventilation, introduce good text-books and devise the best systems of grading, only that our children may, under the most favorable circumstances, receive instruction from those who have the ability to give it. This ability of the teacher is the keystone of the arch, and without it all the rest must fall to the ground at a loss of time and money—too often at the sacrifice of the powers of young and vigorous lives, which stupidity and incompetence have stifled instead of developing.

The great educational want of this State to-day is the establishment of Normal Schools; and we hold it to be the duty of every true lover of true education to agitate this theme until hope and desire in this respect be changed into fru-

ition. Why should Ohio, foremost in patriotism, take a second place in that main spring of patriotism, the education of the people?

Agricultural colleges to teach people to raise ruta бага turnips and when to shear sheep! This is all very well—but first give us colleges or schools to teach those whose ministrations are to develop the latent manhood and womanhood of the millions, who, in the generations to come, are to fill the land and give glory to the American name.

Just here there is a practical difficulty, which leads me naturally to the second point on which I insist; and that is, that the profession of teaching should be a permanent occupation.

It is said, and with a good deal of force, that if we provide instruction for our teachers at the expense of the State, there is no certainty that our pupils will not, at the end of their course, turn to other pursuits, and so deprive us of their services.

There is especial danger of this in the case of female teachers. "It is, however, impossible," says a Massachusetts writer, "for human wisdom to guard against one fate that happens to all, or nearly all, the young women who are graduated at our Normal Schools. But this remark is not made publicly, lest some anxious ones avail themselves of your bounty, as a means to an end not contemplated by the State."

But it would not be fair to charge this tendency to leave the profession of teaching for other pursuits entirely to the other sex. I suppose it is a fact, which can not be denied, that teaching is the most ephemeral of all occupations, unless it be office-holding or editing a newspaper. While some of both sexes enter upon its duties as a life work, "for better or for worse," the great body use it as a stepping-stone to some other calling, or a half-way house on the road to matrimony.

The young man who wishes a collegiate education, and lacks the wherewithal to pay board bills and buy books, teaches during vacations to put money in his purse! He has no thought of adopting the profession of teaching as the real business of life, he cares nothing for it as a science to be developed, and he cares less for the permanent advantage of the schools through which he flits during successive winters. The same necessity leads him, after graduation, to teach while reading law, or attending medical lectures, or waiting for practice.

We can not expect him to feel for this make-shift trade the same enthusiasm that the true professional man feels for his vocation. A man who has really found his calling loves it, seeks to understand it thoroughly, adds his mite to promote its improvement, and rallies about his brother laborers with the ardor of a fellow-craftsman.

Here again teaching is at a disadvantage when compared with other pursuits. A man does not take a year or two at law practice while getting ready to preach, or take a degree in medicine by way of paying expenses while learning the trade of carpenter. As a rule he chooses his profession, enters it, and stands by it; unless, indeed, he prefaces it with a honeymoon of teaching before he settles down to the real business of life. With female teachers the sense that their occupation is only a temporary one, seems to be even stronger. If you should ask the greater number if they expected to make teaching a permanent

business, they would reply: "Teach all the time? No, indeed, I hate it! I only teach because I have to." But why not select some other occupation—something more congenial—something which you will not hate? Then, the same answer oft repeated: "What can a woman do? There are so few occupations. I can not go out to service. Teaching is a respectable, *almost* a fashionable business; so I have gone into that. But if I should be married, or if I could do anything else, I would not teach an hour!"

Need it be said that there must be heart in a work to make it successful, and he or she who goes to labor like a slave under the lash of the taskmaster, will do a slave's work—the allotted task—the work that *must* be done—

"Only this, and nothing more?"

But now there is a murmur of voices. "If you wish us to prepare for our work; if you wish us to stand by our profession; if teaching is to be the business of our lives,—*pay us better salaries.*"

On the part of the males, the argument takes this form: Teaching is a profession; the remuneration of those who follow it should be equal to that of the members of other professions. On the part of the ladies, this further consideration is urged: Women perform the same work in teaching as men; therefore let them receive the same pay.

Let us look at these propositions in their order. Teaching is a profession, say you; then in the first place you must lay aside, in the consideration of this question of pay, all the gains and profits of mercantile life. The large fortunes which reward capital employed in manufactures and commerce, no professional man can hope to obtain; they are beyond the reach of mere brains: they require the pre-existence of cash.

Then, secondly, if teaching be a profession it is a *salaried* profession, and ought properly to be compared with salaried occupations only. The only profession to which, as a body, it can, in this view, be compared, is that of the ministry. Few teachers would be willing, I apprehend, to teach for the pittance paid to the greater portion of our clergy; for, while in a few large cities, in a few large churches, where the expenses of living are high, and the pastor is required to live upon a scale of generous hospitality, the salaries may be generous, yet, in the multitude of parishes, no class of men are so poorly paid. I have in my mind a man who has educated a large family, and educated them well, whose daughter receives, as a teacher, double the highest sum ever paid him in his life.

Tried by this standard only, teachers' salaries are not too low. But there are some salaried positions in other professions. Experienced surgeons could get nearly two thousand dollars in the army and pay all expenses, keeping up their establishment in the field, and supporting their families at home; as hospital surgeons, coroners, and in the few positions which such men can fill, the salaries have been less. In law there are clerks of courts and judges who receive compensation to about the same amount as is paid to teachers in our high schools, and yet the position of judge is in theory to be held only by those whose long experience, upright character and learning have brought them to the top of their profession.

Salaries necessarily represent average incomes, because they are *certain*. They do not depend upon the contingency of practice, which, while it may happen greatly to increase the reward of the practitioner, may also happen greatly to lessen it.

Now, I am persuaded, that the average income of professional men is much less than is usually supposed. We are apt to fix our eyes upon a few successful ones, and accept them as the standard of the pecuniary value of their vocation.

The bar of Hamilton county numbers some two hundred and fifty members. Of these, not more than eighty are returned as having incomes of over one thousand dollars during the past year, and not one is returned as having an income of over two thousand dollars, who is not a practitioner of over ten years standing. There are not more than twenty-five of these all told. The same returns show that the incomes of our doctors are even less than those of our lawyers.

And then, say of it what you will, the great law of demand and supply which regulates values in everything else, must be allowed to operate here also. While so many young men make teaching a temporary occupation, and are willing to teach for a support and little more, the whole scale of prices must be lowered, and kept below the point which it would attain, if every teacher were a life-worker, the aggregate of whose compensation should represent, in some measure, the accumulated gains of the members of other callings. It must not be forgotten that, even in this occupation, there are also exceptional cases, who, possessing some capital, or unusual business talent or executive ability, have, as proprietors of private schools, gained fortunes.

One word as to this very delicate subject of female salaries. You say, ladies, (I have often heard it), "Why not pay us man's wages for man's work?" and the question seems no more than reasonable. I think that *you* think that the mere statement of it is the most unanswerable argument in its favor.

There are some considerations, however, which I think will bear examination before coming to a hasty decision.

*First.* Your stay in the profession is even more temporary than that of males. This element in the reduction of salaries I have already considered. A young man may and frequently does teach after marriage, a young woman very rarely.

*Second.* Your course of training is not ordinarily so severe as that of males. Few of you add a collegiate education to that received in the seminary. Many men do. We should say, then, that the average of male teachers had received a more liberal education than the average of females; and this is an element to be considered in fixing a scale of salaries.

*Third.* A young man must look forward to the time when he will be the support of another besides himself, and he ought to make, and to be permitted to make, provision against that common contingency. But you, when you marry, expect to be supported; the expectation is a reasonable one; it is the common law of life, and forms another element in determining your present compensation.

*Fourth.* That law of demand and supply already alluded to. The very scarcity of suitable occupations for your sex, causes you to flock to those which

are available. As applicants accumulate, wages go down. Some of the wisest female writers are urging their sex to seek other callings; and it is with joy that we see that the circle of pursuits in which they may take a part is one that is constantly increasing; but, while the number of teachers is greatly in excess of the number of classes to be taught, boards of education, who are simply trustees of the public funds, will never be justified in paying more than a liberal market price.

But (and this qualification is, I think, of the first importance) the market price to be adopted is not what poor teachers may be obtained for, but good ones.

We need the best talent in our schools, and we ought to be willing to pay for it, and to be taxed to pay for it at any price. Therefore, when it is ascertained what good teachers can command, and ought to have upon a fair adjustment of the points which I have already considered, let the scale of salaries be fixed in accordance with the result, and then look out for good teachers.

If we can not obtain experienced and educated women, unless we pay them double the price for which we can obtain a man without education or experience, then let us have the female, and pay the double price.

The maxim of school boards upon this subject ought to be—"Good teachers at the price of good teachers, but at *any* price, good teachers."

I have thus endeavored, briefly, to pursue my theme of "Teaching as a Profession." I have endeavored to speak of its value and dignity, and of some of the requisites to its successful and profitable pursuit; to urge that it is a calling of the highest honor, worthy of thorough preliminary training, worthy of life-long devotion. If its devotees can lay these offerings upon its shrine, they will not lose their reward. In the school-rooms of to-day are the men and women of to-morrow. The coming age, with all its influence for good or evil, sits to-day a pupil at the schoolmaster's feet. What is that age to be? What those coming citizens? Well educated or ignorant? Men of large views or narrow-minded bigots? Loyal or rebellious? Teacher, the answer to these questions is with *you*, and upon the true answer, it shall depend, whether your name be honored or execrated in the years to come. Go back to the school-room, then, with renewed vows of faithfulness. Pioneers in the great work of universal education, lay the axe at the root of the trees of ignorance and error. Be it your task to cut a road through the forests, and to build a path over the marshes, upon which the millions of feet that are coming may tread with safety in their march toward civilization.

"Who is the greatest woman in France?" asked Madame de Stael of Napoleon. "She who has borne her most children," was the prompt reply. What shall be said then of her who has formed the minds of a thousand citizens, and has beheld them go forth in successive waves of fertilizing patriotism to bless the land.

As one of your own number has sung:

"Perhaps, in harder toil of brain and heart,  
She reigns the school-room's queen; a noble post  
Indeed, when these true counselors are there,  
Patience, and right, and firm integrity.

Nor deem thine thankless work, O! faithful teacher;  
Thou wilt not find in all a varied life  
A love more reverential, more unselfish,  
Than some young hearts are laying at thy feet.  
How strong their faith in thee; how loyally  
They praise thy good, thy very failings make  
A special sort of virtue; what sweet zeal  
To serve thee speaks in all their artless ways.  
Are their caresses, their attempts to change,  
For thy sake, something that displeases thee,  
Their blushing, eager pleasure when you meet  
In unaccustomed places, no reward  
For all the oft-repeated toil and care  
Their sins of heedless childhood bring to thee?  
E'en when they leave thee, in their loving hearts  
A picture of thy better self is shrined,  
To hold its place through changing years, until  
Their children learn thy name to honor it."





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ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.—No. 2.

BY PROF. HENRY N. DAY, NEW HAVEN, CT.

We pass to the more specific forms of the copula, those in grammar called moods. Grammatical mood is accurately defined to be *the mode of the copula as expressed in language*. The first distinction presented us is that of the copula as modified and as unmodified. If the copula be unmodified, we shall have what is called the *indicative mood*,\* which belongs to a simply assertory judgment, pure and unmodified. If the copula be modified it must be in one or the other of two ways, either in intensity or clearness, or in reference to the ground which determines the judgment. The first of these two kinds of modification is expressed in language by the modals *clearly, certainly*, etc. The other kind of modification respects the ground of the judgment as found in the thought or in the matter of the thought. Now, whatever is

\* The indicative mood can not "represent the action of the verb as *real*," as is erroneously taught by many grammarians; for *reality* belongs to the matter of thought, to that of which we think or judge, not to the thought, the judging act. This error of confounding the matter of thought with thought itself has been a fruitful source of confusion, controversy, and error; and nowhere more noticeably than in the expositions of grammatical mood. But if mood respect the copula, then as reality is utterly foreign to the copula, to speak of the mood as representing reality is absurd.

of pure thought is characterized as necessary, and nothing else in the strictest sense bears this characteristic, as is evinced from the common definition of *necessary matter*—that is, *that to think the contrary of which, is absurd*. Whatever is not of pure thought, whatever accordingly is of the matter of thought, is not necessary—is in the view of thought contingent. We have, therefore, the primary distinction of modified judgments into *necessary* and *contingent* judgments.

Contingent judgments, farther, may be either pure, that is, without indication of the ground, or with such indication. This ground must lie in the mind, that is, either in the cognitive powers other than that of thought itself, or in the desires, or in the will.

Such being the logical distinctions of the copula, we can readily indicate the distinctions of grammatical mood under the definition we have given. There will be as many and such moods in a language as there are particular forms furnished to express the several distinctions of logical mood. The other modifications of the copula will be expressed by the help of modals.

In the English language we have thus the unmodified form of the copula in the indicative mood. The necessary form of the copula is expressed by the auxiliary *must*. The pure contingent is expressed by the potential auxiliaries *may* and *can*, and by the forms of the imperfect indicative. The same forms are, also, used to express the contingent copula as modified. But when desire is expressed as modifying the judgment, the auxiliary precedes the subject; as, "*May heaven bless your cause,*" "*Would God I had died for thee.*" This is the proper optative mood, for which some languages furnish a special form. Further, while *may* and *can* are alike used to indicate that the judgment is grounded in cognitive powers other than the faculty of thought, *may* points to a contingency intrinsic to the subject in the proposition, *can* to an extrinsic contingency. Where the ground of the judgment is indicated as in the will, we have the proper imperative mood, expressed in English by the simple verb, and by the aid of the imperative auxiliary *let*, also, sometimes by *will* for the first person, and *shalt* or *shall* for the other persons.

The use of the imperfect indicative to express the contingent judgment, was far more prevalent in the earlier stages of our literature than more recently. Some forms of expression, in use at

that stage of the language when inflectional endings were less regarded, have been ill understood by grammarians, and hence have been rejected by them on invalid grounds. Such expressions, so common once, and abounding in Shakspeare and in conversational discourse, as "*I had rather*," "*I had as lief*," "*I had as soon*," are exactly equivalent to "*I would rather have*," "*I would as lief have*," "*I would as soon have*;" the verb which might follow being in the old form of the infinitive without the sign *to*, and being the proper passive or immediate object of *had*. The meaning is: I would rather have as my choice. In such expressions as "Death were better," which occurs in Spenser's *Fairy Queen*, "It were wiser," we have, as before, the imperfect used to express the contingent judgment, but with the inflectional distinction of number disregarded. These are all legitimate English—in perfect accordance with the accepted principles of the language.

*Would* and *should* are potential auxiliaries only by virtue of their being forms of the imperfect tense. In this respect they differ from *could* and *might*, which are inflections of proper potential auxiliaries. These last may accordingly be used in two different ways: 1. To denote past time as well as contingency, as "I could when young endure such fatigue," "They at that time might act for themselves;" 2. As mere potentials by virtue of these being imperfections, as "I could go to-day if it does not rain."

The subordinate modifications of the copula are expressed by modals which may be either single words, or phrases or clauses. One of the more common modals is a clause having a verb, the mood of which is erroneously represented by grammarians as the subjunctive mood. Logically, there can be no subjunctive mood, as is, indeed, necessarily implied in the analysis already given of the forms of the copula; for that analysis is manifestly exhaustive. The treatment by most grammarians of what they call the subjunctive mood, is exceedingly confused and confusing. Indeed, in plain truth, it is positively absurd. They define the subjunctive mood to be that form of the verb which represents, affirms, or asserts a thing, an action as conditional, doubtful, or contingent; as, in the sentence "If it rain he can stay in the house," the word *rain*, they say, is in the subjunctive mood. But it is not *rain* but *stay* that is represented in the sentence as conditional or contingent—conditional or contingent on *rain*. The clause *if*

*it rain*, expresses no assertion, but only the condition of an assertion; as is clear from the fact that we may substitute for it a modal phrase, as *in case of rain*, in which is no verb, no form of the asserting element. It is true, that, in some dialects, when the verb is used to express a mere object of thought, whether an event or condition or other object, it has a peculiar form, generally borrowed from the potential or an uninflected form; and if grammatical moods were determined by the form alone, we might admit a subjunctive form. In that case we should be obliged in consistency to hold that the verb in all represented judgments, when taking a peculiar form, must be in the subjunctive mood. But in the English language, in which the logical, not the formal principle, governs the development, this can not be. If we hold that *rain*, in the clause *if it rain*, is in the subjunctive mood, then we must, to be consistent, hold also that *rains* in *in if it rains*, is in the subjunctive. And why is not, also, the same word in the sentence, "It is certain that it *rains*," also in the subjunctive? The subjunctive mood has no existence in the English language. Nor, it may be added, has it any in the Latin; and a little sound logic applied to our Latin grammars would sweep away many a repulsive page of worse than useless lumber. The only correct view is the simple one that regards *rain* in the clause *if it rain*, as in the potential mood, and *rains* in the clause *if it rains*, as in the indicative mood. But in both cases we have not actual, but only represented judgments; that is, forms of a judgment used as an object of thought. Such represented judgments expressed in language are properly called *clauses* to distinguish them from real judgments which are expressed in *sentences*.

It is apparent from this view, that those particles which serve to introduce clauses as modifiers of the copula, such as *if*, *although*, and the like, are proper modal particles, and should be recognized as a distinct class from those which serve to introduce clauses representing objects, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses.

It may be observed here, that the copula, as the more abstract or spiritual element in speech, finds a later and more imperfect expression as distinctive in language. In the incipient stages of the formation of language, simply the subject and the predicate are presented; and the speaker leaves it wholly to the hearer to supply the purely spiritual element that connects them. Distinct

forms for the expression of the copula come slowly into use. Borrowed forms are employed, and the stricter logical forms are at last represented in verbal embodiments but imperfectly, and often concurrently with other uses.

(*To be Continued.*)

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## NOTES: ORTHOEPICAL, ORTHOGRAPHICAL, ETYMOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL.—No. 2.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

10. *Talented*. Something was said concerning this word in No. 1. The objection to the word has recently been revived by Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. He says: "We seem rather unfortunate in our designations for our men of ability. For another term by which we describe them, '*talented*,' is about as bad as possible. What is it? It looks like a participle. From what verb? Fancy such a verb as '*to talent*!' Coleridge somewhere cries out against this newspaper word, and says: 'Imagine other participles formed by this analogy, and men being said to be pennied, shillinged, or pounded.' He perhaps forgot that, by an equal abuse, men are said to be '*moneyed*' men, or as we sometimes see it spelt (as if the word itself were not bad enough without making it worse by false orthography) '*monied*.'"

11. *Gifted*. Alford also condemns this word, placing it in the same class with *talented*. He says: "Another formation of this kind, '*gifted*,' is at present very much in vogue. Every man whose parts are to be praised, is a *gifted* author, or speaker, or preacher. Nay, sometimes a very odd transfer is made, and the pen with which the author writes is said to be '*gifted*,' instead of himself." Alford must, for the moment, have forgotten his rhetoric, or he would not have called this tropical use of *gifted* an "odd transfer." What would he say to "*jovial* wine," "*giddy* drink," "*drowsy* night," "*musings* midnight," "*panting* height," "*astonished* thought," "*merry* bells," "*jocund* rebeccas," "*longing* arms," "*coward* swords," "*high-climbing* hill," "*fighting* fields," "*weary* way," etc.? I must here repeat my conviction that the objection made to the use of *talented*, *moneyed*, and *gifted*, is not

well-founded. Alford himself, fifty pages before the above criticism, quotes some paragraphs from a memoir of Rowland Hill, in one of which is: "He [Stittle] was naturally a gifted man." This quotation, however, does not prove that Alford was inconsistent. Dryden has, "Two of their *gifted* brotherhood," and I. Taylor, "He was *gifted* in a high degree with philosophical sagacity." *Fanged* and *bastioned* are adjectives derived from nouns by adding *ed*. The same principle is seen in numerous compound adjectives, such as *long-nosed*, *long-legged*, *long-armed*, *able-bodied*, *ill-faced*, *high-minded*, *broad-brimmed*; *broad-wayed*, *broad-streeted*, *quick-witted*, etc., etc. If, then, the words *talented*, *gifted*, and *moneyed*, are to be banished from the language as ill-formed, so also must *fanged*, *bastioned*, *targeted*, *turreted*, *lettered*, *petaled*, *voluted*, *tressed*, *tressured*, *bonneted*, *shawled*, *booted*, *coated*, *visaged*, *bearded*, *tongued*, *headed*, *monosyllabled*, *honeyed*, *pilastered*, *peaked* (Macaulay), *kirtled* (Milton), *crooked*, *crossiered* (P. Cyc.), *fleshed*, *cutbited*, *privileged*, *propertied*, *eared*, *spirited*, *faceted*, *armored*, *truffled*, etc., as well as the compounds of *sighted*, *tailed*, *waisted*, *minded*, *witted*, *belted*, *footed*, *faced*, *scented*, *haired*, *celled*, *cornered*, *edged*, *flowered*, *grained*, *leaved*, *lived*, *sided*, *nosed*, *streeted*, *bodied*, *wayed*, *brimmed*, *boned*, etc., etc. The objectors to *talented*, *gifted*, and *moneyed*, have not fully discerned the susceptibilities of the English language.

12. *Lengthy*. Richardson says: "*Length-y*, adj., has lately been introduced (from America?); it is regularly formed, but not wanted: our word is, *Long-some*." Pickering says: "This word was once very common among us, both in writing and in the language of conversation; but it has been so much ridiculed by Americans as well as Englishmen, that in *wri'ing* it is now generally avoided. Mr. Webster has admitted it into his dictionary; but (as need hardly be remarked) it is not in any of the *English* ones. It is applied by us, as Mr. Webster justly observes, chiefly to writings or discourses. Thus we say, a *lengthy* pamphlet, a *lengthy* sermon, etc. The English would say, a *long* or (in the more familiar style) a *longish* sermon. It may be here remarked, by the way, that they make much more use of the termination *ish* than we do; but this is only in the language of *conversation*." Since Pickering wrote it has been admitted into the dictionaries of Knowles, Smart, Reid, Craig, Ogilvie, and Boag. Smart says:

"The word is an Americanism." Such seems also to be Worcester's opinion, for he says, "it is generally considered to be of American origin," and "most of our best writers forbear it." It was used by Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and as early as 1765, by Jared Ingersoll. Hence may have arisen the idea that it is an Americanism. But the earliest known use of the word was by Gibbon in 1763: "For more *lengthy* and original dissertations, which reading or reflection may give rise to, I shall make a separate collection." Lord Byron, in a letter to Dr. Clarke, Dec. 13, 1813, has "*lengthy* additions," and the London Athenæum, of July 12, 1844, p. 697, "two *lengthy* paragraphs." A writer in the Boston Daily Advertiser says, that he has met with the word in the London Times, Liverpool Chronicle, Blackwood's Magazine, British Critic, Quarterly Review, Monthly Review, Eclectic Review, Westminster Review, Foreign Quarterly Review, and in the writings of Dr. Dibdin, Bishop Jebb, Lord Byron, Coleridge, etc., etc. To these names may be added John Foster, Dr. Arnold, Dr. Latham, Dr. French, and Prof. Powell; also, the Christian Observer, Edinburgh Review, Gentleman's Magazine, Saturday Magazine, Penny Cyclopædia. It may also be found in "Drayton's South Carolina" and "Mrs. Clavers's Forest Life." The following quotation is from "Rush's Residence in London," p. 294: "Lord Harrowby spoke of words that had obtained a sanction in the United States, in condemnation of which he could not join; as, for example, *lengthy*, which imported, he said, what was tedious as well as long—an idea that no other English word seemed to convey as well." The same idea is advanced in the Penny Cyclopædia, in which also the American origin of the word is justly called in question. As derivatives from *lengthy* we have *lengthily* used by Thomas Campbell, and *lengthiness* by Granby and Lord Campbell. I can not refrain from replying to Coleridge's argument against *talented* by an *argumentum ad hominem*. Coleridge uses *lengthy*. Imagine a strong man or a man of strength to be called a *strengthy* man; a wide street, a *widthy* street; and a broad board, a *breadthy* board.

ERRATA.—The following typographical errors occur in No. 1: "ORTHOEPICAL" for ORTHOEPIICAL, "Southy" for Southey, "Hord" for Hood, "Ogiloie" for Ogilvie, and "threety" for *threethly*.

## EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

MR. EDITOR: There is one subject among others which I should like to see thoroughly ventilated in your pages. I refer to the examination of teachers. A pretty wide observation has satisfied me that this important duty is very imperfectly discharged by the great majority of examining boards. In several counties which I might name, the performance does not rise much above a broad farce.

I have in mind a board of examiners whose examinations are evidently conducted with a view of ascertaining as little as possible respecting the actual qualifications of applicants. And in this they are eminently successful, for the close of each day's performance finds them in such blissful ignorance that they grant certificates indiscriminately to all. Once in a great while they send a poor fellow adrift, not because they think him specially unqualified, but for the *moral effect* of the thing.

I need not add that the common schools in the county referred to, are in sad condition. But the sadder fact is that this county is not alone. A reference to the Commissioner's late report will convince any one that more than one board of examiners in the State ought to be permitted "to retire to private life."

But the defect to which I wish to call attention, is the narrow, text-bookish character of the tests to which applicants are subjected. The questions submitted by many boards do not differ essentially from those a rote teacher would ask a class of boys and girls in an ordinary recitation. I have examined many sets of questions in geography for example, which called for the statement of facts of no importance whatever—mere text-book rubbish. How long will it take to reform our methods of teaching when examiners thus perpetuate this fact-grinding routine which has so long infested our schools?

I am aware that accurate scholarship is the first qualification necessary for successful teaching. But do such examinations as these test one's scholarship, and especially that kind of scholarship which the teacher should possess? A clear insight into the elementary principles of arithmetic, geography, and English grammar, is certainly more important to the teacher than the



ability to repeat parrot-like the gibberish that passess for knowledge in many of our schools. Insignificant facts, puzzles, grammatical idioms, etc., are worthless as tests of a teacher's qualifications.

Another defect is the absence of every professional element in the tests of many examining boards. The school law requires examiners to certify that every teacher licensed by them "possesses an adequate knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching." This seems like a reasonable requirement, and yet I am confident that there are many examining boards that ignore it altogether, at least in their examination of applicants. If they certify to the fact they do so in the absence of any "adequate" information upon the subject. If the professional knowledge of applicants for a teacher's certificate were carefully inquired into, teacher's institutes would be better attended, and there would be a little more reading and thinking upon the subject of teaching. Then, too, is not the fact that a person has had successful experience as a teacher worthy of some consideration? I do not claim that experience should be taken as a substitute for necessary scholarship, but should not due credit be given for actual and successful service?

Finally, Mr. Editor, can not examiners ascertain more satisfactorily than at present what is true respecting the moral character of applicants? An immoral teacher is surely a greater evil than an ignorant teacher. It strikes me that sterling character and professional knowledge and skill are at least as important to the teacher as mere book knowledge. Do they lie outside of all possible tests?

ENQUIRER.

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CHARACTER in the teacher is the vital condition, the source of power, in all systems of moral instruction and training. The most potent influences of the teacher emanate secretly and rise silently from the inmost spirit of his being. If devotion to truth and duty do not glow within his breast, all his outward efforts will avail but little. At every point of contact with him, his pupils must feel the presence and the charm of manly integrity.

## ORAL INSTRUCTION—ITS PHILOSOPHY AND METHODS.\*

BY MRS. MARY HOWE SMITH, OSWEGO, N.Y.

Among the most interesting of the questions thus arising, is that of the value of oral instruction in the school-room, as compared with the ordinary text-book teaching. No argument is required to show that oral teaching in itself is not necessarily better or more effective than teaching from the text. On the contrary, as ordinarily understood, it appears to dispense with study on the part of the pupil, and is so much inferior to text-book teaching. The very expression "oral teaching" conveys in general to the mind of the hearer, one of two things: either a rambling talk between teacher and pupil, without order and without point; or a set lecture upon some subject to which the pupils listen, taking no part but to remember it. Neither of these two plans contains any considerable element of superiority over the ordinary method of teaching from books. The first may, it is true, interest the children; may lead them to think somewhat; and, if the teacher be earnest, the knowledge thus communicated may impress the mind more forcibly than when read from a book. But if each individual lesson have not a different plan and purpose, to the accomplishment of which every step in its progress tends, then the thinking secured will be to little profit. And if there be not a sequence connecting the lessons one to another, so that at intervals a stand-point may be made, and the various scraps of knowledge communicated gathered into a connected whole, then the knowledge can hardly be either permanent or available to the pupil.

The second plan, that of a series of formal lectures, secures what the first lacks. Each lecture has a purpose to accomplish, and tends straight forward to the accomplishment of that purpose; and the knowledge communicated is given in a connected manner so that it may readily be retained in the memory. But the plan does not necessarily exact thought from the pupil. He may listen day after day to the most valuable course of lectures; may even remember them accurately; and yet he may not, in the least degree, digest or appropriate them. He may not make truly his own one single thought; but the whole, instead of enriching his mind, and becoming available in future study and future life, may be idle in his memory, to become obscured by the dust and cobwebs of time like the rubbish in a garret. Neither of these plans are therefore complete in itself; and both are defective in one most essential part of the work of education—namely, the formation of a habit of prolonged attention and reflection, and of earnest and protracted study. The former without some additional element, must end in making careless and purposeless thinkers; and the latter, passive recipients of the thoughts and sayings of others.

Yet, it can not be questioned, that the communion of mind with mind—the actual contact of the pupil's intelligence with the living, glowing, earnest

\* A paper read before the National Normal Association at Indianapolis, August 14, 1886. We omit the introductory paragraphs, in which are ably sketched the development and progress of the science of education and the philosophy of human development.—ED.

thought of the teacher—is capable of producing vastly greater results, both in the communication of knowledge and the awakening of thought, than can be secured by the simple study of the text-book. What then is the true philosophy and plan, and the real value of oral teaching? To determine this, we inquire: *First*, What is the great end to be accomplished in all school-room work? *Second*, What means are necessary to secure that end?

*First*, then, the end to be attained. The human mind is to be regarded as a magnificent instrument entrusted to man for the accomplishment of his work in the world, that work being, as we have been taught from infancy, to glorify God and bless our fellow men. That instrument, however perfect and glorious it may in itself be, is of little worth to him to whom it is given, unless he knows how to use it. In the hand of the untrained mechanician the rudest implement of past ages would be just as effective as the most complete and perfect instrument which modern skill has produced. Thus with the powers of the mind. Unless by proper training those powers are placed under the control of their possessor, the most kingly natural endowments may rest in obscurity, and pass away from the world accomplishing nothing. It is therefore, obviously, the first duty of the educator to develop and train the mind; to give to man the control of the instrument intrusted to him. But what does this training imply? Certainly not the mere imparting of instruction to the mind. How many well instructed men, men learned in all that can be acquired from books, are yet wholly untrained. They have no means of making their knowledge available to the world; but it lies idle in their brain and will die with them. Much less have they the power to enter into communion with nature, with the material universe, and bring therefrom somewhat of the great store of truth it has to bestow, and which was intended by Providence to ennoble and enrich the mind.

Whatever of truth is contained in, or is deducible from the finite or created world, is attainable to the intellect of man; and the work of obtaining it is the very work Providence intended for the education of humanity. Nature, the material universe, is the drill-room wherein the forces under our command are trained for higher service; for explorations in those vast fields of truth above and beyond the material. It becomes therefore the most absolute duty of the teacher so to guide and lead the child as to induct him into this great school of Providence, and to enable him to desire the utmost good that the endowments bestowed on him by the Creator may permit him to acquire. He is not simply to instruct; he is to educate, to *develop* his pupils. He is not to carry them, but to lead them, step by step, in such researches as they are capable of making, giving them by the way only so much help as will enable them to take each step with the greatest benefit to themselves.

We have suggested that there are certain truths contained in and deducible from the material universe. These are the truths embraced in physical science of whatever department. There are certain other truths contained in and deducible from man's own intellectual and moral being. These are the truths embraced in metaphysical and moral science, in contradistinction from *spiritual truths*.

Our minds are so constituted that we may derive from the finite, whether material or intellectual, all the truth which it contains. Spiritual truths belong

not to the realm of the finite, but of the infinite. They are not contained in nature, and, therefore, can not be derived from it. Between the most elementary of spiritual truths and the highest and most abstract results from physical and metaphysical research, there is an infinite distance over which the human intellect has no power to pass. Our ladder of logic, by which we ascend from a lower range of truth to a higher, may rest its base on the topmost reach of the finite, but it can not lead us to the infinite. It has no support above us, and can only fail us. That support must be let down to us from above. The elementary spiritual truths upon which all spiritual knowledge must be built up—namely, the creation of the material universe from nothing; the fall of man, created sinless; the provision for his redemption; and the conditions upon which the righteousness of the All Holy passes over to the sinner, and the guilt of the sinner is transferred to the Righteous—these are truths which the most god-like intellect could never ascertain unaided. *They must be revealed to us from above.* Being revealed and accepted by faith—which is to the spiritual world what perception is to the natural—the ladder finds its upward support, and we may ascend and descend, like the angels in the vision. Being in the upper realm, we look down upon the lower, and find it full of beautiful types and symbols, by means of which the spiritual may be illustrated and impressed upon our minds, but from which it could never be derived. Having these intellectual truths as a basis, our powers, matured and ennobled by the investigation of the finite, may build upon them a glorious superstructure of physical knowledge; but without revelation the entire spiritual world is closed against us.

Physical and metaphysical truths have never been the subject of revelation, because they are not in themselves above the reach of our powers, and because it was expressly intended that the search and investigation necessary to acquire them, should be the school in which the intellect of humanity should develop itself. These truths are valuable to us not in themselves, as are spiritual truths, but as a means of education. The ultimate good is not to possess and retain the knowledge of them, but to have been enlarged and enriched in power by the very exercise of seeking them.

As Providence educates humanity, so must we educate individuals. Spiritual teaching must be, in the main, authoritative, while intellectual teaching must be inductive. In our work in the school-room, we must in all merely *intellectual* teaching set ourselves to this invaluable rule: *Whatever knowledge is to be presented to the pupil, must be so presented that the very exercise of acquiring it shall enrich him as much as the possession of the knowledge itself.* The great end, then, to be kept in view in all educational work is two-fold: to develop and train the mental powers of the pupil, and to impart such instruction as shall be valuable to him either in itself or as a means of further progress.

*Second. How shall the accomplishment of this end be secured?* The first step toward answering this question is to ascertain the natural order of mental development, for upon this the general plan of our work must depend.

Without going into an analysis of the intellectual faculties which would here be needless and irrelevant, we may be allowed to spend a moment in recalling the order in which they awaken into action. There are in the infant mind, as

all admit, the germs of all those powers which exist and act in the mature mind. No constituent element or faculty is possessed by the latter which is not possessed by the former. The difference is simply one of the relative strength of the several classes of faculties at different periods.

During the first few years of the child's life, the only powers of mind which are in a high state of development are the perceptive or observing faculties, the physical agents of which are the senses. They are intensely active in the young child, and for a time constitute almost his sole means of acquiring definite knowledge. They place him in immediate communication with the external world; thus its varied images enter his mind, and give rise to thought, or rather to ideas. He learns how to express those ideas; thus acquires the use of language, and thus becomes able to receive ideas from other minds.

Acting in conjunction with the perceptive powers, though attaining their full development a little later, are the conceptive or retentive powers, including memory, imagination, etc. They grasp and retain the ideas and images presented to the mind through perception; recall them at pleasure; and in a fuller development, build upon these as a basis other conceptions—conceptions of things beyond the reach of observation. Later is developed the ability to analyze, reflect upon, compare, contrast, and otherwise investigate the knowledge we have already acquired; and to derive therefrom new ideas, which are expressed in the form of abstract propositions. At this stage it is that the knowledge of others becomes really available to us, as we now have the power to grasp it and make it our own. Last is reached that complete and harmonious action of all the faculties, wherein the reasoning power attains its full development; when the mind is able, through it, to rise to high generalizations, to attain the knowledge of general laws and principles, to trace phenomena back to their remote causes, and from known causes to ascertain results.

Thus we find, in the progress of the mind from infancy to mature age, three successive stages, each characterized by the predominance of a certain class of faculties. In childhood are perception and retention alone; in youth, the power of analysis and reflection is superadded to these; and, at maturity, the whole is crowned by the full development and activity of the reason. If, therefore, the various subjects of study are to be so presented to the pupil as to contribute to his development, they must be so treated as to address these varied faculties in the order of their successive awakening. In childhood, they must address perception or observation. The young child must examine, investigate, and discover for himself, those ideas which are to be presented to him; otherwise they can not become truly his own. He has the power to perceive and remember; and all that can be ascertained by means of his senses, or by simple experiments which he can himself perform, is attainable by him. When so ascertained, that which he has learned becomes real, living truth to him, and not simply a dead form of words, as would have been the case had he simply learned it from a book.

Later, we are no longer limited in the main to the perceptive and the retentive powers; but the knowledge ascertained by the investigation of others can be presented to the pupil for analysis and reflection; and, added to the results of his own research, really enriches his mind. It thus aids in preparing him to

enter upon the higher study which is to follow, when he can bring to bear upon the subject he is studying not simply observation, recollection, analysis and reflection, but the full strength of his matured reason. In other words, the true developing plan in study must correspond precisely to the successive steps by which the investigator in the material universe reduces any subject to a science. First, by observation and reading, he fills his mind with clear and accurate conceptions of the multitude of objects and phenomena which appertain to his subject. Now he analyzes them, reflects upon them, until he has ascertained what is the essential and distinctive feature of each, and has grouped them in resulting classes. Finally, he rises above the details of his subject; studies these various classes of objects or phenomena in their relation one to another; ascertains thus the influence of the one upon the other; and arrives at a knowledge of the general laws pervading and controlling all; which laws he enunciates and demonstrates,—and his work is done.

Thus, too, is conducted the intellectual development of the race. First, men simply observed natural phenomena—not at all attempting to investigate them, but attributing them to the direct intervention of supernatural energy. Then arose a class of thinkers who analyzed and grouped these phenomena; and finally, we have the scientists of our own age, whose great problem is not classification, but *law*—the precise influence, one upon another, of the various classes of phenomena remarked in the material universe. Conforming to this plan, we follow the true natural order of education. We do educate individuals as Providence educates humanity.

Having thus before us the end to be attained, and the general plan which must govern us in getting about the accomplishment of that end, let us give our attention to methods in detail. We begin the work of education by addressing the senses, which are the physical agents of the perceptive faculties. Here the main purpose is not to impart information for its own sake, but to lead the pupil to observe; to show him how to use the powers God has given him for acquiring knowledge, and to teach him how to express in the best manner the ideas he acquires. In imparting instruction, we at this stage limit ourselves in general to that which the pupil can use in his subsequent investigations, and give him as little as possible of that which must be idle in his mind.

In regard to the range of subjects employed, the rule is this: Whatever affords the best means for training the observing powers of the pupil, or for enlarging his practical vocabulary, and whatever is in itself most necessary or valuable for study, is legitimate work for the elementary grades of school. Let us begin, first, at the latter class of subjects. Before the pupil can receive much from other minds, he must have a certain command of language—must, as we express it, know the meaning of a certain number of words. In other terms, he must have, existing in his own mind, the conceptions of which those words are the sign. To be useful to him in the greatest extent, not only must he be known to him, but he must be acquainted also with its written form. Therefore, immediately on his entrance into school, begin the work of teaching him to read, and, what is just as necessary, to spell and to write. Some knowledge of numbers is indispensable to the study of most subjects, and is essentially required in the duties of practical life; hence, the

pupil is immediately started upon the elementary steps of arithmetic. A knowledge of geography is also indispensable, and therefore he is early introduced to this subject.

Thus much for those subjects which must be taught for their own sakes, or as instrumentalities for the acquirement of knowledge. Now, let us consider those which are presented because they are especially adapted to accomplish the desired work of training the pupil's powers. Here our field is almost limitless. The initiatory steps of most of the physical sciences—that is, the examination of individual specimens—furnish us a vast field in which to work. Individual plants, animals, and minerals, among natural objects; individual pieces of mechanism, among manufactured objects; and the various substances extracted by us from plants, or obtained from animals—as sugar, tar, starch, cotton, wool, horn, oil,—afford all the materials which could be desired for exercise; and the first three enable us to give him the best possible basis on which to build up a scientific knowledge of those subjects. To this examination of individual objects, together with the elementary subjects previously alluded to, the pupil's study is confined during the first three or four years of his school life. He does not at once approach the scientific department in any one of the various subjects enumerated; but he receives a great variety of valuable exercise, below and apart from the scientific element.

Each of the above classes of objects is capable of being studied from other different points of view: First, those which have a definite structure belonging to themselves,—as the plants, animals, pieces of mechanism,—may be studied in reference to their form, and the form, arrangement and names of their various parts; while the amorphous substances may be examined in reference to their properties. Second, each may be studied in reference to the uses to which it is applied; and the plants and animals, in reference to their habits of life. Third, each may be again examined, in order to determine the relation which its structure or properties bear to the uses to which it is applied, and the adaptation of the structure of the individual animal to its peculiar habits of life may be noticed.

These three aspects under which these objects may be studied give exercise to all the faculties of the mind which are sufficiently developed to be capable of much effort, and in the precise order of their awakening. The first addresses the perceptive powers alone, for the object is placed before the pupil for his examination. In the second the conceptive powers are in the main addressed, for the uses of the object, or the habits of life of the animal, cannot in general be exhibited to the pupil: he must draw on his memory for some, while others will be described to him by his teacher or his text-book. In the third, he is required to reflect upon that which he has now acquired. He must look at the structure or properties of the object studied, in conjunction with its uses, and determine the adaptation of the one to the other. He is led to imagine certain characteristic properties changed, and to determine whether in that case the object could be put to the same uses; or he imagines the object, with its characteristics unchanged, applied to some different use, and determines whether it could be advantageously so employed.

These three varieties of exercise characterize successively the first three years

of school. In the fourth year, the various objects which the pupil has studied as individuals, but which have been presented in regular series, are compared, the obvious essential properties of each class are distinguished from the accidental, and thus is formed a basis for the classification of the objects examined. Thus the pupil takes his first step in the direction of scientific study, yet even this is a remote and very elementary one.

In no part of this work is the child a passive recipient of information given him—nowhere is he permitted mechanically to commit to memory series of facts with no thought in reference to them; but he is first required to bring to bear all the power he is able to employ in the discovery of those facts for himself. He is made to do all that he can do for himself in the ascertaining of the knowledge he is to receive; and only such things are given him authoritatively as are beyond his power to ascertain, yet are required as a means of further progress.

From the beginning, every fact ascertained by the pupil must be expressed by him in a correct sentence. At first he only notices the most obvious parts or properties of the object studied, and the sentences formed are exceedingly simple,—such for instance as: "The corn-plant has long leaves." "The fox has a bushy tail." "The sponge is soft." As soon as the pupils can begin to read and write a little, every such sentence is written upon the blackboard, correctly punctuated, and at the end of the exercise is carefully read by the class in concert. After this is done, the work is erased from the blackboard, and the pupils are required to write the same sentences correctly upon their slates. Thus each lesson, however simple, furnishes a triple exercise—first, that of observation in discovering the fact stated; second, an exercise in spoken language; third, an exercise in written language.

Gradually observation becomes more minute. The attention is no longer confined to what can be discovered by the senses aided by comparison, but such simple experiments as every child can perform, who has a pocket-knife, a cup of water, and a lighted candle are brought to his aid.

New terms are given him one by one to enable him to express in a more concise and elegant manner the ideas previously stated in his own simple language; and he is taught correctly to combine the various simple sentences he has been employing, into compound ones. Thus he has learned how to interrogate nature, and through the expression of the ideas she has given him, the whole machinery of language has become available to him both in the communication of his own thoughts; and the reception of the thoughts of others. Now he is prepared when he has finished his own investigation of any particular object, and learned all he was able to learn for himself, to be benefitted by what another may have to say upon the same topic.

In every case the pupils follow this working, investigating exercise, by a reflecting and memorizing exercise. The little ones, as we have noticed write at the close of the exercise all that they have ascertained during that exercise. This they continue to do when older, studying that which they have written until able to give without hesitation and in proper order, all the ideas which were brought before them in their exercise. Thus the subject matter is digested thoroughly, arranged in proper order to be retained, and stored away in the mind,



not to be idle, but as seed in good ground, to bring forth thirty, sixty, or an hundred fold. Whenever text-books properly arranged can be obtained, these should be in the hands of the pupil; and when he has finished his own investigation of the topic assigned for the lesson, he learns what his book tells him upon it, and thus enlarges and fills up the outline he has obtained by his own research.

Thus are secured the three great desiderata of all methods of teaching. First, a thorough interest in, and independent investigation of the subject under consideration. Second, close and prolonged reflection upon the subject matter presented. Third, habits of intelligent, earnest, and, if we may so speak, appropriating study of books.

The same general plan is pursued when we enter upon those subjects which are outside the range of objective research. If results from processes of reasoning are to be made the subject of study, the pupil is first led over the first steps of that process, so far as he is capable of taking them. He arrives at intelligent conclusions from the data accessible to him; and then by studying his text-book enlarges or corrects those conclusions, as may be required by the influence of conditions which he has not sufficiently taken into account. Throughout the whole course of instruction we aim to make him not only a well informed man, but an independent investigator and correct reasoner upon all matters that come within the range of his investigation and reason. At the same time by requiring him to accept on the authority of others many important truths which are beyond the range of his investigation, we cultivate in him the element of faith; and by showing him the need of constantly correcting, to a certain extent, by obtaining more complete data, conclusions which had appeared perfectly natural and correct, we guard against rashness in drawing conclusions and the blind adherence to prejudices in place of intelligent conclusions.

This, Mr. President, is the outline of what we conceive to be the philosophy and method of all really valuable oral instruction.

## HINTS TO TEACHERS OF READING.

"What method do you use for bringing out the voice?" is the question repeatedly asked of teachers in Reading, and by many would-be critics, by whom he who has most volume is accounted the best reader. I would by no means undervalue this important property of voice, but I would suggest that in devotion to this *adjunct* to expression we may lose sight of those minor graces, without which reading were "flat, stale, and unprofitable." We want something more than a loud tone; we want naturalness, and all those niceties of vocal touch which give evidence of delicate perception and true taste. Bad reading is in the main, caused by many little things, so little and so common that they individually escape our notice. That this is true has been proved in my experience with many classes fresh from the public schools. I find universally the same faults, which must be due either to the uncultivated ear of the teacher, or the pupil's blunt perception.

There is constraint in the manner of the reader, a fear of those who listen, which precludes all expression of feeling. A child who is taught to read at home is rarely troubled in that way. While he is in school, nothing effectual is done to encourage him to throw aside that timidity which naturally falls upon him in the company of so many strangers. The older the child, the harder the task of unfettering him. The example of a fine reader will loosen the first rivet. Place the picture of the poem, or prose sketch, if it be such, before the "mind's eye" in a few, vivid, striking expressions; fire their souls with your enthusiasm, and, trust me, the chains will no longer be felt. The magnetism of the eye, still more the magnetism of voice, brings the class *en rapport* with yourself, and you may lead whither you will.

Another prominent fault is imperfect articulation. I do not mean that thickness of utterance which renders one difficult to be understood, but those careless slips from one word to another which destroy all dignity of expression, either by producing ludicrous combinations, or altering the movement of a line. The difficulty occurs most frequently with words which end in *s*, that letter being transferred to the next word, and doing for two. It occurs, also, in words which end in *t* or *ch*, when such words come before a vowel, as, "What a piece of work is man!" which is given in this form—"Wha ta piece of work, etc." "The sky | is changed; | and such | a change!" The rhythm of the line should be as marked; as usually read it becomes—"The sky | is changed; | and su cha changel!" Order in the last two feet becomes chaos, and the sublimity of the scene vanishes in a breath. A very slight pause after the first word restores the harmony.

Occasionally a scholar reads in the minor key, a good thing in its season, but one of which, like some other good things, it is possible to have too much. In such case, it is of no more use to begin the reforming work with the voice, than to attempt curing a sick person by applications to parts farthest removed from the seat of the disease. Watch the daily life, the mental action, in that scholar, and you will find everything written in the same key. Begin the work there. By encouragement, reasoning, persuasion, above all, by communicating cheerfulness, change the key of that child's thought and feeling, and the voice will not be slow in harmonizing.

Another thing to be watched is the use of the circumflex inflection. Except in rare instances of distinctive emphasis, it belongs to the expression of irony, raillery, and kindred emotions. But, in the expression of a contrast, pupils whose attention has not been called to the matter, will invariably indicate the contrasting words, by a circumflex, as, "I would rather play than read," instead of the honest up and down slides—"I would rather pl'ay than rea'd." I have found the most effectual way of remedying this, to be exaggerating the wrong inflection in such a way as to make it extremely ridiculous. The more undignified, the stronger the impression; then fix the right form by persistent repetition.

The worst fault to contend with, particularly with those who have no musical ear, is peculiar to prose reading. Through the long sentences, the voice at the end of each clause, and sometimes each phrase, is suspended between the level of the sentence and the cadence. It is an indescribable tone, a dropping of

the voice not far enough for an inflection, and too far for anything corresponding in natural expression. It is a tantalizing sound, a sort of dismal holding on, without a touch of nature, acquired evidently by considering reading a mere mechanical exercise, in which certain sounds are to be given, and certain pauses made. The pupil must be induced to read as he would speak, and he will break the monotony of the long sentences, by harmonic slides. It is this fault, more than any other, which makes prose reading so dull and lifeless.

These are some of the little things which we often forget to watch. I am tempted to add something about pronunciation, partly for what I hope to receive in return. We have lately become alive to the fact that we are pronouncing a long list of words wrong, by reason of giving two strong accents, as *ter'-rito'-ry* for *ter'-ritory*, *dic'-tion-a'-ry* for *dic'tionary*, *cir'-cum-stand'-es* for *cir-cumstances*, etc. We can manage the reform very comfortably in such words. It is comparatively easy to say *sec'-retary*, *per'-emptory*, etc., when the accented syllable is the second from the offending penult. But what can our Yankee tongues do with such words as *obligatory*, *judicatory* and a host of others, in which the accented syllable is the *third* or *fourth* from the penult? Shall there be a secondary accent? I shall be thankful to any one who will free me from this perplexity.—*F. A. R., in Massachusetts Teacher.*

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GOOD READING is a rare attainment in our schools. Impressive reading superadds to this some degree of adaptation of the tone of voice to the character of the subject and of the style. Instead of it, we meet with a lifeless, drawling, monotonous style, by which the sense of the author is obscured, lost, or perverted. In such cases reading is a mechanical, not an intellectual process. We can scarcely call this an attainment. An ability to read to this extent can be of little benefit to the pupil; it will not induce him, after he has left school, to read for amusement or instruction. Before he will do this, reading must have ceased to be a task; he must have acquired the power of reading with fluency and intelligence. And if he does acquire this power, the benefit, great though it be to himself, as a means of intellectual advancement, will not be exhausted upon himself, but will extend to others. It is of great moment that as many as possible among the poor should be able to read aloud, so as to be well understood, and listened to with pleasur.—*English Journal of Education.*

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IGNORANCE IN ENGLAND.—The Children's Employment Commission recently published a report of its labors in and about Sheffield, which wrings from one of the London journals the prayer that Dr. Livingstone would give up Africa for a while, and turn his attention to Sheffield. Messrs. Tremenhese and Tufnell—whose veracity can not be questioned—are the authority for declaring that they find in Sheffield lads of fourteen years of age—good lads, too—with money in the savings bank, who are entirely ignorant of everything but the trade by which they live; who have no knowledge of God, or Jesus Christ, or the Bible; who have never heard of Paradise, and who believe the Garden of Eden to have been a tavern; who are not aware that they live in England; who go to church sometimes, because they are sent thither, without knowing whether it is a Protestant or a Roman Catholic church, or for what purpose they attend it.—*American Correspondent.*

## School Officers' Department.

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*The articles included in this Department have special interest to school officers. Those not otherwise credited, are prepared by the editor. Brief communications from school officers and others interested in this feature of the MONTHLY, are solicited. Questions of interest to township boards of education, will receive due attention.*

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### SCHOOL RETURNS.

Another school year has closed, and school clerks are required by law to prepare a statistical record of its success or failure. They have doubtless received from the Commissioner the requisite blanks, and it is hoped that many are already engaged in filling them. We would urge upon all the importance of giving early attention to this duty, and of discharging the same with great care and faithfulness. The value of the school statistics of the State as a whole depends upon the accuracy and completeness of the returns from the several districts. Every township has been supplied with blanks for teachers' reports, and each clerk should be in possession of all necessary data for his annual report. All school returns to the county auditor must be made this month. We shall look forward to the general summary with interest.

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### EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS.

School directors will soon be called upon to discharge the most important of all their official duties, to wit: the employment of competent teachers for the schools under their control. Whatever else they may have done, all will be of no avail unless this duty be done wisely and well. "Without good teachers," says Dr. Channing, "a school is but a name." Search, then, for good teachers as with a lighted candle, and, when found, employ them, expecting to pay good wages. Bolt your school-room doors against incompetent teachers at whatever price they may offer their services. The true maxim is—"Good teachers at the price of good teachers, but, at any price, good teachers." Is your school small? Remember that a poor teacher can not teach well even a single child. Is your school "backward"? Employ the best teacher you can find. A desperate disease demands a skillful physician.

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### FEMALE TEACHERS.

Women are everywhere demonstrating their ability to teach and govern schools of all grades with the highest success. Some of the best normal teachers in the country are women. In Massachusetts about six-sevenths of the

teachers are women,\* many of whom are graduates of the normal schools. Their success in every class of schools is generally conceded. In New York four-fifths of the teachers are women, and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction points to the fact, in his last annual report, "with undisguised pleasure," declaring that "it is impossible to over-estimate the value of the influence thus brought to bear upon daily developing mind and character in our schools." Indeed, the evidence is abundant and conclusive that women are succeeding in the great majority of schools just as well as men—not only in teaching, but also in governing. So far as I am able to get information, the female teachers employed in the winter schools of the country districts, are succeeding better than the average male teachers. This is due, in part, to the fact that they possess, as a general rule, higher qualifications.—*Twelfth Annual Report.*

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### THE TEXT-BOOK QUESTION.

GENEVA, O., July 11, 1836.

E. E. WHITE, ESQ.—*Dear Sir:* I am pleased that you have taken up the "text-book" question in the MONTHLY, and have promised us "more anon." ~

It seems there is to be an increased effort on the part of publishers and their agents, to crowd new books into our schools this fall and winter, whereas the "reconstruction" we need is in the opposite direction. It strikes me that this question is of the highest importance, and that its discussion before the winter and fall schools commence is needed; and I think a series of articles from your own pen would have more influence than if presented in any other form or by any other person. As you have had much experience as teacher, lecturer, commissioner and editor, and have the data all within reach for showing the past and present condition of the schools of the State, your utterances would and should be accepted as being "by authority."

If a State series ever is adopted in Ohio, the whole question ought to be thoroughly discussed and understood in advance. The evil of having a multiplicity of books is more apparent, and is really greater, in village schools than in ordinary country districts, partly because the schools are more crowded, and partly because there is a greater "floating" population. Parents who have books which they bring with them from country districts, if required to lay them aside and purchase new books, fret at the village regulations and censure the teacher.

Very respectfully, yours,

ASA LAMB.

REMARKS.—The intimation of our correspondent that our utterances upon this vexed question may be accepted, to some extent, as "by authority," has well-nigh frightened us into silence. We can only venture a little of the "more anon," unwittingly promised, by first entering a caveat against any one's accepting our views as oracular. We desire the privilege of speaking our mind with the assurance that what we say amiss will be rejected.

It seems to be generally admitted that a uniformity of text-books in a given school is essential to the highest success in teaching. In the graded schools of our cities and towns this uniformity is generally secured; but in the country dis-

\* In Ohio sixty-seven per cent. of the teachers are women.

tricts, and in some of the smaller villages, multiplicity is the rule and uniformity the exception. Why this difference? It is clearly due to the failure of township and village boards to do their duty. They have the same authority respecting text-books as the boards in cities and towns, but, instead of adopting suitable books and prohibiting the use of all others, they simply leave the whole matter to parents and teachers. What our country schools most need is authoritative direction; and before they can have this, the people must be willing to entrust their management to the proper officers. As long as Tom, Dick and Harry can dictate respecting studies and text-books, our country schools will be in confusion.

We do not concur in the opinion that the multiplicity of books in our schools is due to publishers. Doubtless frequent and annoying changes in books are often due to the sharp competition between rival publishing-houses, but facts justify us in saying that this competition tends to a uniformity rather than to a multiplicity of text-books.

A school-book agent was a character unknown to the teachers of our boyhood, and yet the number of different reading-books, arithmetics and geographies found in the old log school-house, greatly exceeded the number now found in the neat white structure that stands in its place. "Many years since," says a recent writer, "it became my duty to serve on the school committee of a country town. There were 59 scholars enrolled, and the book account stood thus—arithmetics 29, of 7 varieties, viz: Daboll 7, Smith 7, Pike (abridged) 5, Colburn 3, three other varieties, with title page out, 7; reading books, 13 varieties; spelling books, 11; and grammars, 4." This was "many years since," be it remembered, when school-book publishers were few in number and the agency business was exceedingly modest, if it had any existence.

It is doubtless true, that if only one series of books in each branch of study was published, our schools would at once be relieved from the annoyance of a diversity of books and our school boards from the necessity of taking any action upon the subject. So, too, had there been but one plow, one hoe, one scythe and one churn invented, there would be an admirable uniformity in the utensils used by our farmers, and they would thus be protected from the sharp and sometimes unscrupulous practices of inventors and manufacturers. But who would like to see such a dead-level state of things? The truth is, there is no one agency that has contributed more to school advancement than improved school books. They constitute largely the means by which new and valuable methods of teaching are made known and available to the great majority of teachers. The publisher of a good school-book is a public benefactor.

Here is a matter which the zealous advocates of a State series of school-books are apt to overlook. They need only ask what would be the effect upon invention and the mechanic arts, were the kinds of implements and machines to be used in each State placed under the control of a central authority, to realize the importance of tolerating free competition among authors and publishers. The essential thing is a uniformity of books *in each school district*; and, in our judgment, the true policy is to secure this result through the action of the local school authorities. Instead of the adoption of a series of books to be used throughout the State, we should much prefer to see the enactment of a law

requiring boards of education to adopt suitable books for the schools under their control, and to interdict the use of any and all other books of the same class or kind. This would secure necessary, if not desirable, uniformity, and at the same time would leave the school-book business open to competition and enterprise.

It may be necessary so to regulate the introduction of new books by law that too frequent changes may be prevented. A statutory provision requiring books when once introduced, to be used for a specified period of time, say at least three years, would cause boards to be more careful in the selection of books, and would, to some extent, protect the patrons of the schools from capricious changes. The practice adopted by some publishers, of "giving in" their books to displace a rival series, is often an inducement to boards to throw out of the schools books recently introduced, and which have not been used sufficiently long to test their merits. It is not an unusual thing for teachers to be disappointed in new books, since the skillful use of a text-book requires a familiar acquaintance with it.

There is one advantage in a State series. The "floating" population, referred to by our correspondent, is not subjected to the expense of buying new books when removing from one locality to another. This is desirable, but we fail to see in it a sufficient argument for the State system. Nor is the common argument that local boards of education are not competent to decide upon the merits of school books, at all conclusive. The difference between the leading series of books now before the public is not sufficiently great to make the selection of good books a difficult task. Facts justify the statement that the average merits of the school-books selected by local boards, will at least equal the merits of the series adopted by a State board or committee.

What our schools need, we repeat, is ACTION by the local boards of education. One series of books should be adopted in each branch of study, and all others peremptorily excluded from the schools.

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#### SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN CLERMONT COUNTY.

E. E. WHITE—*Dear Sir:* According to my promise, I send you a few statements referring to rural and village schools in the southern part of the State. Our school-houses are poorly arranged and furnished for efficient teaching. This is the ninth year since the building of most of them, and they are becoming much out of repair. There seems to have been a mania for cutting benches, picking plaster, and in some places the weather-boarding has been used to kindle fires! There are a few of the old log houses in the country yet. They stand as so many monuments of former days.

The "cipher through" system of instruction still finds a place in most of our country schools. Children are governed, or ruled, by fear. The two extremes of corporal and non-corporal punishment are advocated earnestly. I incline to the former under the family government at present existing in the country.

Respectfully,

J. H. KEECH.

CARMEL, O., 1866.

## Editorial Department.

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### WEBSTER'S NEW DICTIONARY OFFERED AS A PREMIUM.

To the person sending us the largest number of cash subscribers between the first day of September and the first day of November, we will present *a copy of the latest edition of WEBSTER'S UNABRIDGED DICTIONARY*! This magnificent work is generally acknowledged to be the best English dictionary published. The retail price is \$12.

We take pleasure in announcing in this connection, that four hundred new subscribers added to our list, will reach the number we hoped to secure when we commenced the current volume. We now feel sanguine that this reasonable limit will be reached before the first day of November. The present month is a favorable time to secure subscribers. It commences a new school year, and thousands of school-room doors are again open. Teachers have returned from their vacation invigorated in body, and animated with new hopes and purposes. Many have assumed new positions, and are stimulated with the desire to achieve a higher degree of success than they have heretofore attained. All are moved by more than ordinary aspirations, and, to a greater extent than usual, are ready to avail themselves of professional assistance. The superintendent or principal that improves such an opportunity to present the MONTHLY to the teachers under his direction, will be successful. Try it, dear reader, and may you be doubly rewarded.

The following resolution was unanimously passed by the Ohio Teachers' Association at its recent meeting at Zanesville:

"Believing the school interests of our State strongly demand a generous patronage and earnest support of a State educational journal; and that the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is in every way well worthy such patronage and support by the teachers and other friends of education in Ohio: Therefore,

*Resolved*, That we heartily commend to teachers, especially, and other school friends, our official organ, the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, and bespeak their continued active and earnest co-operation in its support."

The subscription price is **\$1.50** a year; six copies and upwards, sent to the same or different postoffices, **\$1.25** a copy. Subscriptions for six months will be received at one half the yearly rates. All subscriptions must commence with the January or July number. We can supply back numbers. Those who commence in July will receive the August number containing the proceedings of the Ohio Teachers' Association. This single number is worth half the price of the volume.



## MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

The three national educational associations of the United States held their annual meetings at Indianapolis, Ind., in the third week of August. The National Association of School Superintendents met in the Hall of the House of Representatives on Monday, Aug. 12, at 2 P.M. An evening session was also held, and two brief sessions on Tuesday. The National Normal Association met on Tuesday at 11 A.M., and held three sessions. The National Teachers' Association met on Wednesday at 10 A.M., and continued in session three days, adjourning Friday afternoon.

The attendance, owing, doubtless, to the prevalence of cholera in Cincinnati, St. Louis, and other western cities, was not large. Very few delegates were present from New England and the Middle States, and even Ohio was represented by few of her superintendents and teachers. Still, among the members of each body were included many distinguished educators; and the proceedings were characterized by great ability and earnestness. They can not fail to exert a potent influence upon the cause of education throughout the country.

Our limited space forbids any attempt to report, in full, the proceedings of either association, but we give, instead, a brief summary, presenting, as far as may be, the substance and spirit of the action of each body:

## I. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS.

This Association is composed of the school superintendents of the several States and of the leading cities, including the ex-superintendents who became members while in office. The number of States and cities represented at the Indianapolis meeting was about the same as at the first meeting, held in Washington, D. C., in February last.

The Association was welcomed to Indiana by Hon. G. W. Hoss, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, in a neat and eloquent address, to which an appropriate response was made by the President, B. G. Northrop, of Massachusetts.

The President announced the presence of Senor D. F. Sarmiento, Minister from the Argentine Republic, and, alluding to his eminent services in the cause of education in South America, invited him to address the Association. Inasmuch as he speaks the English language imperfectly, he presented a paper which was read by Prof. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania. He paid a high compliment to the United States as the first nation of the earth in wealth, energy, industry, and intelligence, and declared it to be the high province of the great Republic to conduct others through the new paths she had opened for mankind. Alluding to univesal education as the source of our greatness, he expressed the hope that the time would come when the South American Republics would have the complete system of education which now bless the United States. But we dismiss the attempt to give an idea of this brief and excellent address, with the promise that it shall appear in our next issue. It was received with the highest favor.

A brief paper was read by J. W. Bulkley, Supt. of the Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y., on "The Cost *per capita* of Education in the different States." To attain the necessary information on this subject, a correspondence had been

opened with every State and Territory, and with many of the leading cities. Replies had been received from about one-half of the States, but the want of uniformity in the statistics reported was so great that no satisfactory tables could be compiled. We quote from the report:

While we have not obtained the information sought, and are not able to spread out before you the results we hoped to present, still our labor has not been in vain. By our correspondence the whole matter has been magnified in importance, and the necessity of action by which the subject shall be clearly presented to the several States demonstrated.

The question for us to settle is: "What elements shall be taken into the account, in order to ascertain the cost per capita of education in the several States?"

1. Shall it be our teachers' wages alone? or,
2. Shall it be our teachers' salaries, including salaries of officers, room rent, janitors' wages, repairs and furnishing, heating apparatus, printing, and other incidentals?
3. Shall the cost of school lots and the expense of buildings erected during the year, be taken into the account?
4. Shall the legal interest on a proper valuation of all school property form an item in the estimate?
5. Shall the estimate be on the average attendance, or on the entire register number, or both separately?
6. How shall the register number be reckoned, and how the average obtained; and shall the number in attendance be taken by half days, or once a day?
7. What shall constitute the time upon which we reckon the cost? Shall it be by days, weeks, months, or the year?

In the foregoing we have the principal elements necessary to form a basis upon which, if clearly defined and carefully set forth, having the authority and influence of this Association, will give us the basis upon which the comparative cost of education in the several States and cities of the Union may be ascertained.

The paper closed with the recommendation that the whole subject be referred to a committee of three, with instructions to prepare and distribute to school superintendents a circular asking for the requisite statistics, accompanying the same with the necessary blank forms.

The discussion of this suggestive paper was suspended to receive the report of a committee appointed at the Washington meeting to report a "plan of collecting uniform statistics in order to compare the school systems of the several States." In the absence of the chairman (Mr. Adams, of Vermont), Mr. White, of Ohio, was called upon to present the views of the committee. He stated that the only feasible plan of collecting the statistics referred to, was the organization of a national bureau of education; but something in this direction may be done through a committee of this body. He gave an enumeration and analysis of the statistics required to make a comparison of the school systems of the several States, and described the basis on which each item should be reported. He alluded to several absurd comparisons that had recently been made between the school-attendance of different cities and States, all drawn from statistics that do not afford the necessary data for such comparisons. He read a brief paper which had been submitted to the committee by Hon. Chas. R. Coburn, State Supt. of Pennsylvania. He concluded by recommending that the Association, at its present session, agree upon the items of statistics which the committee suggested by Mr. Bulkley, should call for, and the basis on which these several items should be reported.

The report was followed by a general discussion, in which the want of uniformity in the school statistics of the several States was admitted, and the importance of co-operative action on the part of school officers, strongly urged.

A motion was adopted requesting Mr. White to write out his report for publication; and a committee, consisting of Messrs. White, Bulkley, and Henkle, of Ohio, was appointed to submit to the Association, for its approval, a schedule of the statistical items necessary to be reported, with definite instructions for the guidance of the school departments of the several States.

Monday evening was devoted to the hearing of brief reports respecting the school systems of the several States represented in the Association. Many suggestive and interesting facts were stated. All who alluded to the subjects, spoke strongly in favor of the township system and of county supervision. The reports from Kansas, Minnesota, and other new States, indicated a wonderful progress in school affairs.

On Tuesday morning, the committee appointed at the Washington meeting to memorialize Congress respecting the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, was called upon to make a report of its action. Mr. White, of Ohio, chairman of the committee, stated that a memorial was prepared, immediately after the adjournment of the Association, and presented, with a draft of a bill, to Hon. James A. Garfield, of Ohio, who laid the same before the House of Representatives. The bill, with the accompanying memorial, was referred to a select committee of seven, Mr. Garfield being chairman, who reported it back with some amendments, and recommended its passage. The bill passed the House, and is now in the Senate where it has strong friends. It will come up early next session; and, if the educators of the several States interest themselves in its behalf, will become a law.

After the reading of the memorial, which was done by request, Mr. Hoss, of Indiana, offered the following resolutions:

**WHEREAS**, An approved bill, looking to the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, has passed the House of Representatives of Congress: Therefore,

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this National School Superintendents' Association are due and are hereby tendered that body for its liberal and enlightened action on behalf of general education.

*Resolved*, That this body appoint a committee of five, to properly bring the House bill to the attention of the Senate, and secure its early passage by that body.

The resolutions were adopted, and Messrs. White, of Ohio, Hosford, of Michigan, Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, Stevenson, of Kentucky, and Bulkley, of New York, appointed the committee.

On motion of Mr. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, a vote of thanks was tendered to General Garfield, of Ohio, for his able and successful advocacy of the bill, and he was requested to furnish a copy of his speech upon the subject, delivered in the House of Representatives, for publication.

The committee on Statistics submitted a schedule of items with instructions, which, after a spirited and able discussion, was adopted. Messrs. Coburn, Hosford, and Hoss, were appointed a committee to carry into effect the plan adopted, and they were instructed to collate the statistics collected, and report the same to the Association at its next meeting.

On motion of Mr. Cruikshank, of Brooklyn, N. Y., a committee of three was appointed to collect, collate, and prepare uniform statistics of the schools in the leading cities of the Union. Committee—Messrs. Cruikshank, Pickard, of Chicago, and Shortridge, of Indianapolis.

Mr. Hoss, of Indiana, offered the following resolutions:

*Resolved*, That a committee of five be appointed to devise and adopt means for securing statistics, showing the relation between pauperism and education, crime and education, and intemperance and education, setting forth also the cost of same.

*Resolved*, That we respectfully solicit the School Superintendents of the various States and cities through the country, to collect in an authentic and reliable form, the statistics indicated in the above resolution.

The resolutions were adopted, and Messrs. Edwards, of Illinois, Hoss, Cruikshank, Gregory, of Michigan, and Adams, of Vermont, were appointed the committee.

Mr. Olcott, of Indiana, offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

*Resolved*, That it is the unanimous opinion of the National Association of School Superintendents, that Free High Schools form an essential part of each State School System.

Messrs. Cruikshank, Hoss, and Norris, of Ohio, were appointed a committee on Publication.

The following officers were elected:

*President*—E. E. White, of Ohio.

*Vice Presidents*—D. Stevenson, of Kentucky; J. L. Pickard, of Chicago; J. W. Bulkley, of Brooklyn, N. Y.

*Recording Secretary*—L. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland.

*Corresponding Secretary*—Geo. W. Hoss, of Indiana.

*Treasurer*—J. M. Olcott, of Terre Haute, Ind.

*Executive Committee*—Chairman: J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania; D. Doty, of Detroit; W. R. White, West Virginia; I. T. Goodnow, of Kansas; J. S. Adams, of Vermont.

On motion, a vote of thanks was tendered the retiring President for the able and efficient manner in which he had performed the duties of his office.

The Association adjourned to meet on the Monday preceding the next meeting of the National Teachers' Association, and at the same place.

## II. NATIONAL NORMAL ASSOCIATION.

This Association is composed of the principals, teachers and active friends of Normal Schools. President Edwards, of the Illinois Normal University, opened the session with a brief reference to the progress of these schools, and the office they are to fill in the great work of education.

The first paper was read by Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of the Oswego Normal and Training School. Subject: "Oral Instruction—its Philosophy and Methods." It elicited the highest commendations. It is found in this number.

The second paper was read by E. C. Hewett, of the Illinois Normal University. Subject: "Oral Instruction—its Uses and Limitations." This was also an excellent paper, and should be widely circulated and read.

Each of the above papers was strongly indorsed by those who participated in their discussion.

The third paper was read by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, Principal of the Minnesota Normal School. The central thought of this paper was that normal schools should be graded to meet the wants of different classes of teachers. There should be a sufficient number of an elementary grade, located in differ-

ent parts of the State, to prepare teachers for primary and common schools, and one of a higher grade for teachers of high schools, academies and colleges.

The recommendation was well-received, and, although the discussion took a very wide range, the importance of providing professional training of an elementary character for the great body of our teachers, was distinctly recognized and urged.

The fourth paper was a long account of the brief history of the Kansas Normal School (founded in 1863), and was read by the Principal, Mr. L. B. Kellogg.

This was followed by brief but encouraging reports of normal school efforts in other States. It was stated that the whole number of normal schools now organized in this country, is thirty three.

The following officers were elected:

*President*--D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts.

*Vice Presidents*--E. A. Sheldon, of New York; M. A. Newhall, of Maryland; W. F. Phelps, of Minnesota; J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania.

*Secretary*--L. B. Kellogg, of Kansas.

*Treasurer*--E. C. Hewett, of Illinois.

The Association adjourned to meet at the call of the President.

Our notice of the National Teachers' Association is deferred until next month.

## THE OBJECTS OF THE RECITATION.

What are the principal objects of a recitation? Why should it thoroughly test the pupil's study? What is the difference between teaching and talking? What, in your opinion, are the more common faults of teachers in conducting recitations?—*Questions on the Theory and Practice of Teaching.*

The first step in answering these questions is to determine what is the true end or aim of education. A mistake here will mislead the teacher throughout, whether his inquiries relate to means or methods, to aims or results. If, for example, he holds that *knowledge* is the great end of education, his entire school-room work will point in this direction; if, on the contrary, he believes mental *discipline* to be the chief end of his labors, all his methods will conform to this test or guiding doctrine.

Without attempting here to fortify our position with arguments, we state that, in our opinion, the value of every school study or tutorial method is to be measured by the application of the following tests *in the order of their statement*: 1. What is its worth as a means of mental development? 2. What is the practical value of its facts for the purposes of guidance?

It is to be observed that the question involved is simply the proper *subordination* of these tests; not whether either is of worth, but which is of most worth.

With this guiding principle in view, we turn to the inquiry, "What are the principal objects of a recitation?" The answer plainly is: 1. To develop the mental powers of the pupil—to train him to think. 2. To fix in his memory a knowledge of the facts and principles contained in the lesson. These are the two great results which every recitation should secure.

But how must the recitation be conducted in order to secure these results? What powers or faculties are to be developed in a given recitation? What immediate aims must guide the teacher? These are the questions which confront the inexperienced teacher, and which he must answer.

Nor is it enough that he has a general idea of what he is to accomplish. He must come before his class to secure particular results, by particular methods. Still, a clear and definite conception of the distinctive characteristics of the recitation in general, will aid in determining the ends and means of each special recitation, and the inquiry is, therefore, pertinent: What are the aims or objects of a good recitation?

In conducting the recitations of classes advanced beyond what is denominated primary work, the teacher should aim—

1. To test thoroughly the pupil's study.
2. To make clearer and more permanent his knowledge.
3. To impart instruction: (a) indirectly, by leading the pupil to discover truth; (b) directly, by communicating information beyond his reach.
4. To train him to tell what he knows: (a) in good language; (b) with distinct enunciation.

It is believed that this classification of the immediate ends of the recitation will, upon examination, be found nearly exhaustive, and that the specifications are made in the order of their relative importance. Let us consider each briefly:

1. The essential condition of mental development, the first great end of school training, is *brain-work*. The teacher may guide and stimulate, but the wrestling with the difficulties of each lesson must be the pupil's. To this end every requisition of the recitation must necessitate critical, earnest, vigorous study on the part of the pupil. It is this search after truth, this struggle of the mind to discover and grasp it, that imparts strength and vigor to the mental powers. In the teacher's direction of the recitation, there should, of course, be exposition and instruction, but these should be given with a view to guide and increase the efforts of the pupil, rather than to convert him into a passive recipient or store-room. The class-work of the teacher should reveal clearly the results of the pupil's thinking; should disclose every failure—should, in a word, thoroughly test his preparation. This is the first object of the recitation.

2. The recitation must not only test the pupil's knowledge, but it must make this knowledge *clearer and more permanent*. This the teacher may accomplish by so ordering his questions or tests that the pupil may be led to see the facts and principles learned in their mutual relation and dependence, and thus be able to reduce his knowledge to a more complete system. We place this result as the second object of the recitation.

3. The recitation should make actual additions to the pupil's knowledge, either by aiding him in the discovery of truth, or by directly imparting to him information *otherwise beyond his reach*. We call special attention to the italicized words. Whether mental training or the retention of knowledge is the end sought, the pupil should never be directly told what he can be led to find out for himself. The teacher should persistently hold to this cardinal principle. We can only add that it is a serious and pernicious error to make the communica-

tion of knowledge the first and great end of school training. Talking is not teaching.

4. The ability to express one's thoughts clearly and in good language, is the prime grace of scholarship, and, as a consequence, the imparting of this ability should hold a prominent place in school instruction. Every recitation should, indeed, be made a practical drill in the use of language. The ideas the pupil wishes to convey, should be expressed fully and clearly, and they should be spoken with a natural and distinct utterance.

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## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

THE great event of the year is the laying of the Atlantic Cable, which was consummated on the 28th of July. Dispatches are now transmitted from London to New York in *two hours*, and the citizens of Cincinnati, St. Louis and Chicago read each morning dispatches sent the previous day from Rome, Berlin and St. Petersburg! This is the crowning triumph of science. A dispatch just received from *mid ocean*, announces the finding and successful raising of the cable lost last year. Before these lines reach the eye of the reader, two cables will connect Europe and America.

MRS. SMITH'S PAPER ON ORAL INSTRUCTION.—We invite the special attention of our readers to this excellent essay. It is the most philosophical and satisfactory discussion of this subject we have ever read, and we wish it could be carefully *studied* by every primary teacher and school superintendent in the country. The paragraph commencing at the bottom of page 305, is remarkably felicitous both in thought and expression. It would grace the pages of the most gifted of American writers. The only exception we take to the paper, is the sharpness of the lines drawn between the successive periods of mental evolution. While these periods are characterized by the special activity of the faculties named, none of the mental powers are wholly dormant. The little child compares, imagines and reasons, as well as perceives, but these mental acts are occasional and feeble. This fact is, indeed, stated in the philosophical part of the essay, but, as it seems to us, is not clearly recognized in the discussion of methods.

INDIANA STATE NORMAL INSTITUTES.—These institutes, four in number, held under the direction of the State Teachers' Association, were a decided success. Over five hundred of the live teachers of the State were in attendance, and received valuable professional instruction. They have returned to their respective fields of labor, carrying with them new ideas and higher purposes. President Edwards, Mrs. Smith, and others associated with us, did a work that will long be felt in the schools of the State. We have never spent a month in more delightful labor. We were specially pleased with the spirit of the teachers. Under the efficient and worthy leadership of Superintendent Hoss, they are bound to make the schools of Indiana equal to the best in the country. May God bless them in their great work.

A QUESTION ANSWERED.—A subscriber at Clyde, O., wishes us to settle a dispute among the teachers of Sandusky county by answering this arithmetical question: "What number is a third more than sixty?" Since a third of sixty is twenty, the number that is a third more than sixty must be sixty plus twenty, or *eighty*. Eighty is a third more than sixty, and sixty is a fourth less than eighty. Ninety is a half more than sixty, and sixty is a third less than ninety.

**TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.**—Fifteen teachers' institutes, most of them continuing in session from three to five weeks, were held in Ohio in the months of July and August. We have received reports from those held at Lancaster, Batavia, Racine, Marysville, Tiffin, Kenton, Greenville, and Dayton, but, owing to a wrong estimate respecting the amount of copy furnished the printer, we can not notice them until next month. Will the secretary of each institute held send us a brief report, including names of instructors, number in attendance, etc.?—An institute is to be held at Wooster the last week of September.

**THE TEACHER'S ENCYCLOPEDIA.**—Teachers, as a class, can not provide themselves with encyclopedias, or such other books of reference as would aid them in their labors, but in the latest edition of Webster's magnificent Quarto Dictionary they have a worthy substitute. Whenever I meet teachers in their associations or institutes, or in private, I earnestly present to them the great advantage they would derive from having this work near them. It will tend to make them accurate, while the definitions and illustrations will suggest many new ideas for elaboration among their pupils.—*W. R. White, State Supt. of Free Schools, West Virginia.*

**THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION** for June contains: I. Pennsylvania System of Normal Schools; II. The Oswego Normal and Training School; III. Advice on Studies and Conduct; IV. National Teachers' Association; V. Educational Duties of the Hour; VI. Object Teaching; VII. State Normal School System; VIII. Education as an Element in the Policy of Reconstruction; IX. National Educational Bureau; X. American Educational Association; XI. Formation of Character the Main Object of Education; XII. Home and School Training One Hundred Years Ago; XIII. Public Instruction in Austria; State Educational Conventions and Associations; XV. American and National Conventions and Associations; XVI. Educational Miscellany and Intelligence. Papers V, VI, VII, VIII and IX were read before the National Teachers' Association at the Harrisburg meeting in 1865. Price, single number, \$1.25.

**JOSEPH MOORE**, Bush Hill, N. C., recently sent us sixteen subscribers. An eminent teacher of a neighboring State whom he consulted in reference to the selection of a journal best adapted to common-school teachers, recommended the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

**MR. JAY COOKE** has contributed \$25,000 for the endowment of an additional theological professorship at Kenyon College, and has nominated Rev. Dr. Bronson, rector of the Episcopal Church in Sandusky, to fill the chair.

**SINCE** the burning of the colored school-houses at the time of the riots in Memphis, a building of sufficient capacity for the accommodation of four or five hundred scholars has been erected by the Freedmen's Bureau, with the name of Phoenix Educational Institute.

**CHARLES KINGSBURY**, for many years superintendent of the schools of Ironton, O., died in that city on the 6th of July, of consumption. He was a successful teacher and a good man. But for poor health, he would have stood among the most active educators of the State. The spirit was willing but the flesh was weak. His memory will be cherished by all who knew him.

**H. J. CALDWELL** has resigned the superintendency of the public schools of Warren, O., to take charge of the schools of Gallipolis, O.

**PROF. JAMES H. FAIRCHILD** was inaugurated President of Oberlin College on the 22d of August. He has been connected with the College many years.



## BOOK NOTICES.

**A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1492 TO 1866.** For the use of Schools. By JOSEPH C. MARTINDALE, M.D., Principal of the Forest Grammar School, Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother, 1866.

This compend presents in a concise form the principal events of the history of the United States. It contains little or no reference to the causes of these events or their consequences, and is remarkably free from political or other bias. Events whether noble or ignoble, whether redounding to the glory or to the shame of the country, are faithfully recorded, and usually "without note or comment." The evident aim of the author was to present an unadorned record of the great facts of American history. The events are well-selected and classified, and are recited in their chronological order. The appendix contains a full chronological table; the chronology of wars and treaties; and a large number of other tables which will be found exceedingly valuable for purposes of reference. The work is, in a word, an admirable fact-compend; and all teachers who use the *memoriser* method in teaching history, will thank the author for his short, clear sentences, and the small compass into which he has condensed the wonderful record.

**PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF ALGEBRA**, for Common Schools and Academies. By JOSEPH RAY, M.D. Revised Electrotype Edition. Cincinnati: Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle.

**ELEMENTS OF ALGEBRA**, for Colleges, Schools, and Private Students. By JOSEPH RAY, M.D. Revised Electrotype Edition. Cincinnati: Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle.

Ray's Algebras long since took their place among the most thorough and practical treatises on this science used in American schools. Eminent mathematicians, as well as the more common teachers of algebra, have strongly commended them for their progressive arrangement and the concise and scientific manner in which the several subjects are treated. Throughout both works the natural and, consequently, logical order of reaching the general through the particular is, in the main, adhered to, and the pupil is thus enabled to master the higher generalisations and the more abstruse principles of the science with comparative ease. In other words, he is led to the heights of the science by progressive and easy steps. But it is a waste of time for us to enumerate the excellencies of text-books so widely known as Ray's Algebras. Our readers are most interested in the changes which the work of revision has effected.

On opening the Elementary Algebra we miss the oral problems at the beginning of the old edition. These have been omitted, indicating that what was once called "Intellectual Algebra" has had its day. Looking farther on we find, here and there, a material reduction in the number of examples, and judicious abridgments of rules and demonstrations. A few new methods of proof, more strictly algebraic than the old, please us, and we are glad to find designated places for general review. The skillful teacher of mathematics knows that when successive heights are reached, it is exceedingly profitable to look back over the space traversed, and take a new survey of its difficulties. The "General Reviews" scattered through the work will prove, beyond question, a valuable feature.

The changes noticed in the Higher Algebra are not so numerous. In a few instances we find a reduction in the number of problems and the substitution of a few new methods of demonstration. Some of the rules and definitions have been retouched, adding to their conciseness or clearness.

On the whole, the changes made in both works are believed to be improvements which will enhance their value and usefulness. They are printed from new electrotype plates on good paper, and are substantially and neatly bound.

**THE SCIENCE OF GOVERNMENT** in connection with American Institutions. By JOSEPH ALDEN, D.D., LL.D., late President of Jefferson College, and Author of Elements of Intellectual Philosophy, etc. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1866.

Educators begin to recognize the fact that American citizens are as a class lamentably ignorant of the fundamental principles which underlie their political institutions. The examinations of applicants for teachers' certificates show that not more than one teacher in four can even name the three Departments of the National Government or give the simplest statement of their relative functions. If this is true of teachers, what must be true of the great body of our people? The remedy for this state of things, all agree, must be found in the schools. In them must be imparted to our youth a knowledge of those distinctive and elementary principles of the Constitution which animate the nation and control the administration of the government. Nor is this a difficult task. Neither the mechanism nor the principles of government are as difficult to understand as the mechanism and the principles of the globe which make up the science of geography. What is wanted is an elementary manual which shall present the subject in a simple and comprehensive manner. The work before us claims to be such a manual. It unfolds the origin and necessity of government, its objects and sovereign power; the different forms of government; and the nature of representation in a republic. It then presents a succinct history of the formation, the gradual development rather, of the United States Government. The next one hundred and twenty pages are devoted to a simple exposition of the Constitution. Then follow three chapters which treat respectively of the constitutions of the different States, of international law, and different kinds of law. The whole is comprised within less than two hundred and fifty pages of clear and open type. We are least pleased with the first four chapters. We read them with the wish that the treatment of the several topics they present, had been more logical and exhaustive. The chapter on suffrage is, as an argument, specially weak, and, in our judgment, had better have been entirely omitted. The work would meet our ideas of a text-book better if it contained less of argument and more of analysis and method; still we can heartily commend it as the best treatise of the kind we have yet examined. Let it be widely and thoroughly used in our schools.

**APGAR'S GEOGRAPHICAL DRAWING-BOOK.** A New and Improved System of Map-Drawing, designed to be used as a Primary Geography by Beginners, and as a Companion Geography by those who wish to acquire the Art of Drawing Maps from Memory. By E. A. & A. C. APGAR, Authors of Geographical Charts and Hand-Book. Philadelphia: Published by J. B. Cowperthwait. 1866.

The title-page of this work gives its design, but an examination of its contents can alone convey an idea of its unique character. It is not only a complete manual on map-drawing, but it also presents in detail a method of teaching geography on the basis of map-drawing. In connection with the map of each country, is presented, for study and recitation, a brief description of its physical characteristics. The drawing of the map and a description of the objects located upon it afford the drill in local geography, the aim of which is to impress the map-picture of the country indelibly upon the mind of the learner. The work is designed for pupils sufficiently advanced to enter intelligently upon the study of maps. Teachers will find it a very suggestive and instructive manual, and we commend it to their attention.

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TEACHING AND TEACHERS.

BY S. A. N.

The question was recently asked in one of our journals: "Is teaching a knack or is it a science?" Probably most teachers would claim for it the higher rank, and show that it is indubitably both an art and a science. Passing by the technical exposition of the theme, we propose to offer a few general considerations which may indirectly bear upon the question.

In the first place, we remark that the art of teaching differs in no respect from other arts as regards the qualifications necessary for the success of its professors. No one doubts that painting is an art, that its rules are founded upon scientific principles; but it is notorious that masters in all the schools both merit and receive commendation for their works, however much the schools to which they severally belong may differ. It is also a matter of common remark, that imitators fail of assured success, except the doubtful one of being good imitators. This fact is also noticeable in music, in letters, and even in the mechanic arts. The utmost that instruction can do, is to inculcate some few general rules of practice, a few cautions against natural errors, and exhibit the various tricks of manual dexterity which experience has shown to be useful. In other words, he who expects to attain pre-eminence in any art must be an originator, or, to say the least, he must be

able to adapt the results attained by his predecessors, so fully and completely that they shall be to all intents and purposes his own. There have been many methods of teaching presented to the world, which, in the hands of their inventors, have accomplished all that could reasonably be expected of any system, but which have signally failed when practiced by other men.

It is of no slight interest to one who has given any thought to the subject to learn what were the methods by which men eminent in arts, in letters, and in statesmanship, were trained. Of course, the best examples for our purpose will be found in those cases where we can trace the actual effect of the plan pursued. In the great schools, this is clearly impossible, for they furnish us only the average result, because the proportion of their graduates who afterward attain eminence is so small, that we may fairly consider the success of the distinguished few to have been reached in spite of their training, rather than on account of any peculiar virtue in it. We have accounts of the early instruction of Montaigne, Pascal, Niebuhr, Buckle, Pitt, and others, who were educated mainly at home, and which, therefore, furnish, the isolated examples that we need. At first sight, nothing can appear more different than the methods of study to which these men were subjected—in fact, some seem to have studied without system; but in one thing they all agree, that the youths were stimulated to continued industry, if not by the example, by the constant interest and untiring efforts of their parents. As we read the life of Niebuhr, it seems as if we were really striking the roots of the matter, that the main thing in education is to inspire a sort of enthusiasm in the pupil for his studies. How far this can be done without the aid of parental counsel and zealous co-operation, is a serious question, entirely overlooked in our present system of schools, whether secular or religious, in which, as a general rule, too much responsibility is thrown upon the teacher, and far too little assumed by the parent. It is easy to see that enthusiasm can not be expected in a teacher who does not clearly apprehend his duties, and who only imperfectly comprehends the methods he pursues, and, further, that he can not arouse enthusiasm in his pupils without being himself zealous, for enthusiasm is contagious, not endemic. Given then two men, one learned, pedantic and torpid, the other deficient in knowledge but anxious to know more

and to impart his knowledge, and it will not be difficult to predict which will excel in teaching.

So far as the personal qualities of the instructor are concerned, whether stupid or intelligent, showy or solid, sluggish or active, the teacher is born, and not made, as truly as any poet can be. Natural genius is also required in all that pertains to the government of the school. No military academy in the world has ever made, or can make, a successful commander out of a weak, timid, and vacillating man. The best it can do is to make him a martinet in routine and accomplished in regimental tactics. So no teacher can control his boys without something of the talent which characterizes a great captain. Weakness and irresolution, strength and decision of character are innate. The teacher's eye and voice are by far the surest indication of his value. Let there be the slightest evidence of wavering in either, and who will detect it sooner than the school boy? There will be no need of frowns, bluster, or blows, if the pupil recognizes his master in the steady resolution of the face. Subordinate to these qualities is an indefinable tact which some men possess of guiding and influencing others without perceptible exertion or manifest purpose; a quality which belongs alike to statesmen and to leaders in polite society, but which attains its purpose as surely over an undisciplined throng of boys as over the ignoble mob.

To this extent teaching is a knack. This knack had Arnold, Pestalozzi, Hamilton, Nott, and others eminent in teaching. It implies the possession of at least two of the qualities mentioned, viz: the ability to govern well and the power of awakening enthusiasm. The success of these men verifies the old proverb that a good scholar goes beyond his master, and explains the seeming paradox that so many eminent teachers are inferior scholars, while profound scholars are often worthless as teachers.

Now, to what extent is teaching a science? Manifestly so far as it develops latent talent, or aids it in the acquisition of knowledge. This it may do in various ways. Some methods of presenting a given subject are universally acknowledged to be the best possible, and these methods may be learned and applied by every one. For instance, a bungler might be supposed to attempt to lead a tyro who had no knowledge of geometry, over the *pons asinorum*; the artist would prepare the way by sundry axioms,

postulates, and lemmas. Genius may often blunder in the sad school of experience, before it reaches the certain path. Science warns the traveler from many an impassable bog, by exhibiting the errors of other men. Enthusiasm, unfettered, may run wild. Science develops the laws which command success. Then, again, science details many a useful hint regarding the economy of time; the best means of securing thoroughness, or of rousing flagging interest; and many a purely mechanical trick in the management of classes, which will amazingly benefit the teacher of mediocre talent. It considers questions which ordinary experience reaches only after a lapse of time, of apparatus and experiments, of the comparative merit of systems, of the methods of analysis and synthesis, of the presentation of the abstract or the concrete, or of the relative value of lecturing and recitations, and the like. In these and many other ways, teaching fulfills the definition of a science in that "it is knowledge so classified and arranged that it may be conveniently taught, easily learned, and readily applied."

For the development of the science of teaching, educational journals and normal schools are established, teachers' institutes and conventions organized. Incidentally, normal schools impart instruction of a high grade in the studies which their graduates are expected to teach. How fully these various agencies attain their ends, is an open question. Too often normal schools and institutes are merely academies, except in name; too often they are under the control of men abounding in hobbies of little practical worth; too often under men who have no peculiar qualifications for their responsible position. Doubtless, some will be failures; but with honest effort some must succeed in every sense of the work.

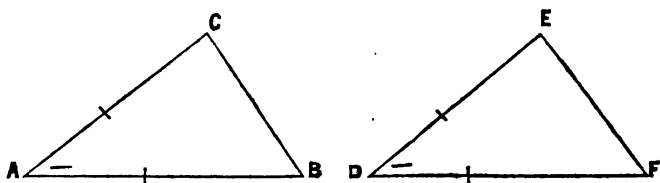
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## A METHOD OF TEACHING ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY.

BY T. E. SULIOT.

A long time ago, I sent to the MONTHLY a description of the way in which I thought geometry might and should be taught, in order, from the very outset, to elicit the inventive power or geometrical faculty. I will now, for the benefit of our less experi-

enced readers, attempt a sketch of an ideal lesson in which the principle of that method is to be brought into action. Let us suppose the class just started, and the proposition that is to be discussed for study at home and recitation on the morrow, to be that starting point in the properties of triangles, viz: If two triangles have two sides and the included angle of the one equal to two sides and the included angle of the other, each to each, the two triangles will be equal in every respect.



The teacher draws the diagram on the board, and desires the class to choose what two sides and included angle shall be supposed equal. Those parts are indicated as in the figure above.

*Teacher*—From these data, we are to endeavor to prove the necessity of the equality of the triangles in every other respect. Observe, I say the *necessity*: we have to prove not only that they are equal, but that they *must* be equal. As this is our first proposition, our point of departure, we have no previous proposition or geometrical truth to run back to, by the application of which we could prove this fundamental property of triangles. What shall we do?

The class, in all probability, are unable to point out any way.

*Teacher*.—In such a case, the only means in our power is to employ what is technically called *supraposition*; in plain words, to apply *mentally* one triangle to another, in such a manner that their perfect coincidence shall appear to be a necessary consequence. Can any one show how this may be done?

A. (one of the scholars).—Cut out the two triangles on paper, apply the one to the other, and see whether they match.

*Teacher*.—Will the class allow this to be a mathematical way of going to work, and, therefore, correct?

No one sees any objection.

*Teacher*.—Does geometry, like the science of mechanics, treat of material bodies, having a palpable substance? What is the definition of geometry?

*B.* (another scholar)—Geometry teaches the properties or mutual relations of figured portions of space.

*Teacher.*—What do you mean by figured space?

*B.*—Space extending either in one direction only, constituting a line, or in two directions of length and breadth, constituting surface, or in three directions of length, breadth, and height or thickness, constituting a geometrical solid.

*Teacher.*—Well, then, if we represent by figures on the board or on paper the two triangular portions of space whose equality we are trying to prove; it is merely to assist our mind in keeping steadily before it the *ideal* triangles in question,—in reality, we have nothing to do with those coarse lines of pencil or chalk, but only with two triangular portions of space bounded by ideal lines, extending from ideal points A, B, C, D, E, F; so related, according to the hypothesis or supposition, 1st. That the distance from A to B shall equal the distance from D to F; 2d. That, at the same time, the distance from A to C shall equal that from D to E; 3d. That the inclination of the ideal line AB to AC, or the angle A, shall equal the inclination of the line DF to DE, or the angle D. Let us conceive the line DF to be placed on the line AB. Can it be done so that the two lines shall coincide or make but one line?

*C.*—Yes, if you will conceive the point D to be placed on the point A, and the line DE on the line AB, the point F must fall on the point B.

*Teacher.*—Why?

*Class.*—Because the line DF was supposed to be equal to AB.

*Teacher.*—Where shall the point E be found?

*Class.*—On the point C.

*Teacher.*—Why?

*Class.*—Because the line DE is supposed equal to AC.

*Teacher.*—Does that necessarily follow?

No one, at first, sees why it should not necessarily follow.

*Teacher.*—Think! Do you really believe that, under any circumstance, provided only the line DE be supposed to be of the same length as the line AC, the point E *must* fall on the point C?

*D.*—No. If the angle D were smaller than the angle A, the line DE would fall within the triangle ABC; and if the angle D



were greater than the angle A, the line DE would fall without the triangle ABC.

*Teacher.*—Very well, indeed! Then, without, for the present, considering the equality of the lines AC and DE, but considering merely the equality of the angle D and A, what consequence follows from this latter equality?

*E.*—The line DE must fall upon the line AC.

*Teacher.*—What do you mean by “fall upon”?

*E.*—It must take the same direction.

*Teacher.*—Right! If then DE were shorter than AC, what would follow?

*F.*—The point E would fall somewhere on the line AC.

*Teacher.*—And if the line DE were longer than AC, what would follow?

*G.*—The point C would fall somewhere on DE.

*Teacher.*—Not exactly, since we have supposed the triangle DEF to be mentally applied to the triangle ABC, not the triangle ABC to the triangle DEF. You would express your idea more correctly by saying that, if the line DE were longer than AC, the point E would fall beyond C, on the line AC produced.

Now, let us see what we have arrived at. Since we have conceived the point D to be applied to the point A, and have shown that, if the line DE be conceived to be laid on the line AB, the point F must fall on the point B, and, further, that the point E must fall on the point C, what may we now affirm of the two triangles?

*Class.*—That they coincide, and are, therefore, equal in every respect.

*Teacher.*—When you leave the room, go over again the steps of this reasoning, and come prepared, at our next lesson, to prove the proposition; we will then attack the next in the same way.

If I had my own way, the text-book on geometry that I would put into your hands would contain only the enunciation of each proposition and the diagram, with, sometimes, a few hints, to help you on. But, since I can not do that, let me most earnestly recommend to you, not to read over the demonstration in the text until you have made out your own proof yourselves. If you will persevere in so doing, you will not only acquire such facility that you will prepare the lesson in almost as short a time as if you

followed the hackneyed humdrum method of *committing* the demonstration, but you will gain, besides, a real, practical and thorough knowledge of geometry, not a mere second-hand knowledge, borrowed from other men's brains. You will develop in your minds the power of originating geometrical truths, and of reasoning upon them; you will be like a composer who can evolve out of his own soul new harmonies, not like a common musician who can only repeat the compositions of the masters of the art.

The class may now withdraw.

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### ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.—No. 3.

BY PROF. HENRY N. DAY, NEW HAVEN, CT.

(Concluded.)

The subject of the sentence, or generally the noun, whether used as subject or otherwise, may be limited either in respect of its internal significance, or in respect of its external form.

In respect of its significance, it can be limited only in two ways: either in respect of its extension or sphere—the number or kind of individuals included under it; or in respect of its comprehension, or the properties included in it.

The element of the sentence which limits a subject or a noun generally however used, is, of course, a subordinate element, and is denominated the *adjective* element.

Adjectives, then, are of two general classes: those which limit in respect of the sphere of the noun, called *definitives*, and those which limit in respect of the comprehension of the noun, called *epithets*.

Definitives limit the sphere of a noun in two ways: 1. By means of extensive quantity, giving the two species of (1) *Numerals* with their two varieties of the *definitive numerals*, as *one*, *two*, etc., including the article *a* or *an*, and the *indefinite numerals*, as *some*, *few*, *many*, etc., including the special quantitatives, as *much*, *little*; (2) *Demonstratives*, as *this*, *that*, *yonder*, including the article *the*. 2. By means of comprehensive quantity, that is, by designating which of the species is meant through its

specific attribute, called *attributives*; as, the *learned* man; *dark* clouds.

Epithets limit in respect of the comprehension of the noun, directing the attention not on the numerical or spacial, or specific part of the composite object denoted by the noun, but on some property belonging to it, as *mortal* man; *righteous* Lord. Here *man* and *Lord* are limited as *mortal* and *righteous* not in respect of their distinction from other men not mortal, or other Lords not righteous, but in respect of the particular properties denoted by the adjectives.

Adjectives themselves suffer modifications, furnishing submodifications of nouns, in two ways: 1. *Irrelatively*, as, "The *spiritually rich* man"; 2. *Relatively*, or as the object denoted by the noun is compared with other objects or in respect of other attributes, and this in two ways: 1. Co-ordinately, that is, as the object is compared with some other one or more of the same class, as "A man *richer* than Croesus," "A man *richer* than all other men," called the *comparative* form; 2. Subordinately, that is, as the object is compared with the whole class, as "The *richest* of men," called the *superlative* form. It is erroneous to represent grammatical comparison, as denoting *degrees* in the quality. The distinction is thus grounded: The adjective is relatively modified or it is not. Regarded as not relatively modified, it is said to be in the positive form. Regarded as relatively modified, it is so either in respect to the other parts of the class to which it belongs, that is, co-ordinately, giving the comparative form; or in respect to the whole class to which it belongs, that is, subordinately, giving the superlative form.

Further, the adjective element is either *normal*—the proper adjective; or *abnormal*. The abnormal adjective element is of two kinds: one, in which other parts of speech, phrases, or clauses, are used as adjectives, or to modify nouns losing their own original and proper power; the other, in which they retain their original nature.

Of the first class, we have examples in nouns used as adjectives, as "A glass house," written as an adjective if used to denote a simple quality, as in this example, the meaning being "a house made of glass;" but with a hyphen, if used to denote relation, as "A glass-house," meaning "a house for keeping or selling

glass." So other parts of speech are used as adjectives; as, "*Hither* Gaul;" "*The then* dynasty;" "*The under* current;" and, also, phrases, "*The let-alone* policy."

Of the second class, we have two species: one employing nouns, the other employing clauses to limit the object. Of the first species, we have two forms: one is by *apposition*, as it is called, and this in two ways: 1. Without a connecting particle, as "*The mountain Horeb*;" 2. With a connecting particle which in extensive quantity is *or*, and in comprehensive quantity is *as*; as "*Milton as poet*;" that is, in so far as poet. The other form is by *case*, expressed either in *inflection*, or with a preposition or by an *adjunct*, as it is called, including the infinitive adjunct, as in "*difficult to perform*."

The second species embraces proper clauses; that is, *the assertive*, or as they have been inadequately called the *finite* forms of the verb, being introduced by a relative subject, as *who*, *which*, *that*, and also the derived forms of the verb, the *participle* and the *gerund*. Both of these forms are used to limit either in extensive or in comprehensive quantity; that is, either as definitives or as epithets. For example, as definitives: "*The man who loves virtue*;" "*The man owning the horse*:" as epithets, "*Man that was created in the Divine image*;" "*Man aspiring to angelic dignity*."

The predicate may be modified either relatively or in itself. Relatively, it can be modified only in relation to the one or the other of the two co-ordinate elements of the sentence—the copula and the subject. It is modified relatively to the copula only as it is combined with it in form; as the matter of the judgment can not be modified by the judgment itself.

It is modified relatively to the subject either as to outward form or as to internal significance. The relative modifications in respect of form are those of *person* and *number*, and serve only to show the reference of the predicate to its own subject, that is, to show to what subject it belongs; as "*High stations tumult*, but not bliss create."

The relative modifications of the predicate in its internal significance are either, 1. *Concrete*, limiting the subject as to kind, that is, in extensive quantity, by the use of a noun; as, "*She walks a Queen*:" or, 2. *Abstract*, limiting the subject as to prop-

erty, that is, in comprehensive quantity, by the use of an adjective; as, "She walks calm and majestic;" "Such a one beats about him *bleeding, hungry, and convulsively.*"

Modifications of the predicate in itself are either those which belong to it as a whole, or those which belong to it in its parts.

The first class or proper predicate modifiers are expressed in two ways: 1. By changes in the word itself, that is, by *inflection*; 2. By the use of other words, that is, by *adverbials*.

Modifications by inflection are either, 1. Those of *voice*, showing the direction of an action or relation as *from* or *to* the subject, giving the distinctions of *active* and *passive*; or, 2. Those of *tense*, limiting the predicate in respect to the condition of time.

As time may be viewed either as successive or as continuous, we have submodifications of the tense-distinction (1) as *simple*, as "I *write*," "I *wrote*;" and (2) as *continuous*, as "I *am writing*," "I *was writing*."

In either case, moreover, it may be present, past, or future. Still further submodifications are those of time as relative or irrelative. Thus past tense is irrelative in "I *wrote*," the so-called imperfect; it is relative either (1) to the present time, as "I *have written*," the so-called perfect; or (2) to the past, as "I *had written*," the so-called pluperfect. In like manner, the future tense is irrelative in "I *shall write*," the so-called future; it is relative in "I *shall have written*," the so-called future perfect.

Adverbial modifications are either in respect of form or of significance. In respect of form, they are either *normal*, that is, by proper *adverbs*; or *abnormal* by other parts of speech used to modify predicates. In respect of significance, they limit either in respect of *property* or of *relation*.

Adverbials of property include, 1. Those of *manner*; and 2. Those of *quantity*, embracing those of amount, extent, frequency, and intensity.

Adverbials of relation include, 1. Those of *condition* or *circumstance*, embracing (1) those of time whether successive or continuous, present, past or future; (2) those of place whether of position, direction, or source; (3) those of *order*, whether in space or time; 2. Those of *comparison*; 3. Those of *dependence*, including the four species of cause and effect, reason and consequent, motive and result, means and end.

Modifications of the predicate in its parts are either, 1. *Irrelative*, that is, in each part by itself and without relation to the other parts; or 2. *Relative*.

Concrete predicates are modified, thus, irrelatively by adjectives; as, "Alexander was a *generous* conqueror." Abstract predicates are modified by adverbials; as, "Alexander was *ever* generous."

Relative modifications of the predicate in its parts are those which modify predicates of action or relation, that is, *transitive* predicates. They limit in respect to object, and are hence called *object modifications*. They are of the following kinds:

1. Modifications by a *specifying* object; as, "He lived a *noble* life." These are sometimes, but improperly, regarded as the objects exclusively of intransitive verbs, so-called; for transitive verbs take the specifying object; as, "He gave a generous gift."

2. Modifications by *immediate* or *passive* object; as, "John gave *his* book."

3. Modifications by remote object; as, "John gave *her* his book;" "He ran *to the* goal."

4. Modifications by object of *result*; as, "He ran *for the* prize;" "He gave her the book *to* study."

5. Modifications by a *partitive* object, or object of an object itself as action or relation. The partitive object may be either (1) another action or relation; as, "He made his brother *change* his purpose;" or (2) a thing; as, "He made the water *wine*;" or (3) an attribute; as, "He makes the burden *light*."

## NOTES: ORTHOEPICAL, ORTHOGRAPHICAL, ETYMOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL.—No. 3.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

13. *In respect of; in regard of.* These expressions have always appeared harsh to me. They have lately been defended by Alford. He says: "'In respect of,' 'in respect to,' 'with respect to;' which of these is right? The question extends also to 'in regard of,' 'in regard to,' 'with regard to.' For respect and

*regard*, though far from meaning the same when spoken of as feelings of the mind, yet in their primitive meaning, which is that now treated of, are identical. I believe it will be found that *of* and *to* may be indifferently used after these words. Both words have the same signification; *an act of looking back at*. The former, *respect*, is a Latin word, and the expression answering to 'in respect of,' is used in Latin. At the same time, the natural construction of the verb from which *respect* is derived would be with the preposition *to* (*respicere ad*). There is nothing in the meaning of the word to forbid either construction—with *of*, or with *to*. The same may be said of *regard*, which is of French origin. Still, if we agree on this much, it remains to be seen what preposition should be *prefixed*. '*In respect of*' is the pure Latin construction, and seems on all hands (but seen below) to be admitted as pure English likewise. And the same with '*in regard of*,' '*with respect to*,' and '*in respect to*,' are both found: the former I think the more frequently in our best writers. But, unless I am mistaken, '*with respect of*' is not found. When one of my Censors said of a sentence in these notes, that I had used '*in respect of*,' for '*with respect to*,' he surely must have been speaking without his authorities before him. He will find in the dictionaries, that in the scanty lists there given, Spenser, Bacon, Tillotson, all use the expression complained of. It occurs in Phillippians iv. 11, and Colossians ii. 16, and is certainly as much used by good modern writers as that which he wishes to substitute for it." Alford seems to be slightly at fault in his allusion to the dictionaries, for the quotation from Spenser in Richardson's Dictionary has "without respect of riches or reward" and both Webster and Worcester quote Tillotson as saying, "They believed but one supreme deity, which, *with respect to* the various benefits men received from, had several titles." Huckluyt wrote "*in respect of*;" Bishop Horsley, "*without regard to*;" Watts, "*in regard to*;" Miller, "*with some regard to*;" Hooker and Dickens, "*in regard to*." Before Alford wrote the above, George P. Marsh, a higher authority on questions pertaining to the English language, had discussed the subject as follows:—"It is impossible, in a single lecture, to notice in detail the thousand violations of grammatical propriety, which are constantly springing up and threatening to pervert and denaturalize our mother

tongue; but the deliberate introduction of incorrect forms, whether by the coinage of new, or the revival of obsolete and inexpressive syntactical combinations, ought to be resisted even in trifles, especially where it leads to the confusion of distinct ideas. An example of this is the recent use of the adverbial phrases *in respect of*, *in regard of*, *for in* or *with respect* or *regard to*. This innovation is without any syntactical ground, and ought to be condemned and avoided as a mere grammatical crotchet. The writers of the seventeenth century used these expressions in three senses: First, for '*in comparison with*;' as, the expenses of the government are small, *in respect of* its revenue; secondly, for '*by reason of*, or '*on account of*;' as *in respect of* our ignorance and frailty, we ought to be humble; and finally, as a mode of introducing a subject, limiting a general proposition, or referring to a particular point, in which case it was equivalent to the phrases '*as to*,' '*in reference to*,' '*respecting*,' '*so far as concerns*,' &c. First sense, of '*comparison*:' 'The Warres of the Latter Ages seeme to be made in the Darke, *in respect of* the glory and honour which reflected upon men from the Wars in ancient Time.'—Bacon's Essays, 1639, Essay xxix. Of the True Greatness of Kingdoms. Second sense, '*by reason*,' or, '*on account of*:' 'The Northern tract of the world is in nature the more martial Region: be it *in respect of* the Stars of that Hemisphere, \* \* \* or of the cold of the Northern parts, which \* \* \* doth make the bodies hardest and the courage warmest.'—Do., do., Essay lviii. Of the Vicissitudes of Things. Third sense, '*relatively to*,' or, '*with reference to*:' Timing of the Lute is the principal: 'Timing, I say, not only *in respect of* the Person that should grant it, but *in respect of* those which are like to crosse it.'—Do., do., Essay xlix. Of Suitors. The first use, that expressive of comparison, soon became obsolete, and has not been revived. The form, *in respect* or *regard of*, was then confined to the meaning, *by reason of*, *on account of*; and *in* or *with respect* or *regard to* was employed in the sense of *in reference to*, *respecting*. This employment of these latter two forms had become well settled, though the first of them was seldom employed except in the dialect of the law. Coleridge was the first eminent writer of this century who returned to the practice of using '*in respect of*' exclusively; but his writings never had sufficient currency to pro-



duce much influence on the language. Since his time, however, some deservedly popular writers have employed this phrase; and with Trench it is a pet construction, and often introduced when a very different phrase would much better express its meaning. It rests, of course, on the theory that in this phrase, *respect* or *regard* is an independent noun, and therefore should be followed by the preposition *of*. But this, I think, is a mistaken view of the subject. The word *respect* in this combination has none of the meanings known to it as an independent noun, in the English vocabulary. The expression 'in or with respect' is an idiotism, a phraseological construction of an adverbial character, and in its ordinary modern use, it is the equivalent of *relatively*. Old writers sometimes say 'respectively to.' This is now disused; but 'relatively to' is by no means unfrequent, and 'in respect of,' used in this sense, is just as gross a violation of English grammar as to write 'relatively of,' or 'in reference of.' The mere violation of a grammatical rule would be a comparatively small evil; but most of the writers who have adopted this innovation, are so anxious to parade it, as a badge of the style of a school, that they drag it in on all occasions, where they can, by any chance, contrive to introduce it, very often employing it in constructions that leave it difficult to determine whether they mean *relatively to*, or *by reason of*, or *in point of*; and the vague use of the phrase, of course, tends to embarrass the reader by confounding in expression things logically very distinct. Nobody ever thinks of saying, 'in reference of;' but if these phrases are to be governed by the rules of English construction of *nouns*, there is as good a reason for this expression as for 'in respect of.' The Latin etymology of *respect* has nothing to do with the question, for the Latin primitive was not used for any such purpose, or in any such construction; and the phrase in question is strictly an *English* idiotism." This discussion of the subject is a sufficient answer to Alford's defence.

14. *In so far*. I have never been able to see the use of *in before so far*, which words seem to express as much as is expressed by *in so far*. The phrase is used by Alford, John Stuart Mill, Sir Wm. Hamilton, and many others.

15. *Of all others*. This phrase, which is found even in the writings of good authors, has nothing to commend it. To include

a thing in a class from which it is expressly excluded, is ridiculous. Draper in his "Intellectual Development of Europe," p. 244, says, "Four years after the death of Justinian, A. D. 569, was born at Mecca, in Arabia, the man who *of all others*, has exercised the greatest influence upon the human race—Mohammed, by Europeans surnamed 'the Impostor.'" *Of* should give place to *more than*.

16. *Mussulmen*. I find this word on p. 342 of "Draper's Intellectual Development of Europe." It should be *mussulmans*, the plural being formed as the plurals of *German*, *Turcoman*, *talisman*, etc. The proper plural is given by Macaulay in his article on Warren Hastings in the *Edinburg Review*, October, 1841.

N. B.—The letters of those who have written to me on the subject of these will receive attention in my next article.

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## EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

—————, OHIO, September 15, 1866.

DEAR EDITOR:—I have been much interested in the remarks on this subject in the September *Monthly*, just received. They seem to be just and timely. While the majority of the examiners of the State are doubtless discharging their duties with commendable fidelity, the schools in too many counties are cursed with incompetent teachers, who hold the certificates of faithless boards. All good teachers have an interest in the correction of this state of things. These incompetents keep down the wages of those who are qualified, retard the growth of a proper appreciation of the profession, and stifle all public interest in the schools. Hence, I hold that it is the duty of all competent teachers to stimulate the examiners, if possible, to the maintenance of a proper standard of qualification in the issuing of certificates. Our teachers' institutes ought to speak out upon this subject.

I fully agree with "Enquirer" in regard to the necessity of a change in the manner of examining teachers. The "professional

element," to which he refers, should certainly be made more prominent. Let our teachers feel that a knowledge of their business and eminent success therein will be considered in determining the grade of their certificate, and we shall witness a professional spirit among them, hitherto unknown. I would not lower the scholastic requirements; but I would supplément them with professional attainments.

I may be mistaken, but it seems to me possible for a board of examiners so to discharge their official duties as to arouse an active, progressive professional spirit among teachers. And, here, permit me to ask whether it would not be a good thing so to amend the school law as to make it the *duty* of examiners to see that a teachers' institute is held annually in their respective counties?

I wish your correspondent had answered his own question respecting the ascertaining of the moral character of applicants. The subject is certainly beset with some difficulties. I do not see how any personal or direct examination of an applicant can be made a test of his moral character. The most immoral would certainly try to make out the clearest case for themselves. Nor do I think much reliance can be placed on recommendations, secured in the usual manner. There is not a scoundrel in the country that can not find persons that will testify that he is a saint. There are thousands of people that would swear that Jeff. Davis is an immaculate patriot.

I can suggest no better plan than this: When an applicant is not personally known to one or more of the examiners, let him be required to present a recommendation from some person in whose honesty and courage the board has confidence. When this can not be done, let satisfactory references be required and the certificate be withheld until the necessary information can be obtained. In cases of doubt specific inquiries should be made, and in no case should an examiner affix his signature to a certificate until he has satisfactory evidence that the recipient's character is good. No persons addicted to the habits of profanity, intemperance, licentiousness, gambling, etc., should, under any circumstances, be permitted to cross the threshold of a school-room as a teacher; and that examiner through whose criminal neglect of duty such a calamity occurs, incurs thereby no light condemnation.

When I wrote the above paragraph I intended that it should conclude this unsavory letter, but I find myself over-tempted to allude to, what seems to me, the sharp practice of the examiners of a neighboring county, who manage to stretch each meeting held by them—and they hold as many as the law allows—over *two* days. This would seem to indicate great thoroughness in the examination of applicants; but, the truth is, the line with which they sound the depths of a teacher's knowledge, is exceeding short. Instead of continuing an applicant's examination two days, the job is completed in a few minutes. Why, then, it may be asked, does the board meet on two successive days? The answer is easy. The first day's session is held to afford an opportunity to adjourn to the second day! The first day is the "make ready" part of the performance, and that you may appreciate the necessity for this "make ready," permit me to state that two members of the board are lawyers who, being well nigh briefless, are moved with an earnest desire to dip as deeply as possible into the county treasury. True, this is rather a shallow dip, but every little helps a lean purse.

But, seriously, is not this procedure a clear evasion of the law? I am aware that when Commissioner you decided that if necessary to complete an examination, a meeting may be continued two days. In the county referred to, the second day's examination is not a completion of the first. Each day is really a separate examination, as much so as it would be if separated from the other by an interval of a month.

A SECOND ENQUIRER.

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#### ✓ SENOR SARMIENTO'S ADDRESS.

[The following is the address of Senor D. F. Sarmiento, Minister Plenipotentiary from the Argentine Republic, at the recent meeting of the National Association of School Superintendents:]

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: It has been my good fortune to be associated through the kindness of Mr. Northrop with the first step taken in Washington, some months ago, in the task that the present assembly intends to carry out, and I am indebted to the same kindness again for being invited to this, the second meeting.

While Congress was engaged in discussing the law creating a central bureau of education in Washington, I had the honor to transmit a copy of that act to my government urging that it should provide to that effect in my country, where its necessity is felt ten times more than in the United States.

Though our institutions of government are also federal, we have States further behind in the diffusion of education and in degree of culture than the Northern States of this Union. And hence the measures that may be adopted at this assembly to diffuse and generalize common education throughout the States, and the practical means that may be pointed out to attain that result, will be more important when applied to my country; and it will be my pleasant duty to give a full report to my government, and to the citizens who, like these congregated here, feel interested in the development of education. Taking this for granted, I have the confidence that I shall be supplied with a number of copies of the proceedings of this body.

It is the province of the United States, the highest mission entrusted by Providence to a great people, that of conducting others through the new paths opened by mankind, to advance firmly to their great destinies.

For these six years only, the world has commenced to cast its glances upon this part of America, contemplating in some wonderful results, the phenomena of a people who, under free institutions, has been raised in less than one century to be the first nation of the earth in wealth, energy, industry and intelligence.

Nothing new, however, beside the military glory attained in four years' fighting, do the United States offer to the contemplation of the world. Their liberties are as old as their very existence; their wealth is developing with gigantic strides; their system of common and scientific education has already attained a high state of perfection.

The work of Sir Morton Peto on the resources and future of the United States is not the only manifestation of the investigating curiosity with which Europe gazes upon this country. Mr. Gladstone has not taken it amiss to accept in the English Parliament the charge made against him of adopting North American principles in his bill of electoral reformation, and I suppose you are acquainted with the valuable work that is being written by Mr. Freeman, in England, on the history of Federal Government, commencing with a "general view of the Greek Federation," to end with the study of the Government of the United States, which he rates as the most perfect and adequate to his views that has been created hitherto by the human mind.

This resemblance between Greece and the United States is not accidental. Through their liberties and the improvements of the fine arts, the ancient Greek Republics succeeded within a short time in developing the noblest qualities of man, and likewise the United States, through liberty, common education and industry, are destined to preside over the future development of human kind.

The Republics of South America ought to be the first to avail themselves of the lessons given to them by the great Republic of the North with such an enlightened exposition. But unfortunately it is not so. They follow a system of perturbations whose end is not contemplated yet. The cause of it lies in the ignorance of the large majorities and in the defects of their political structure, and if we may say so, they have been inherited, and cannot be eradicated by one generation.

And it is you gentlemen, who stand before the Southern States as a matter to be studied, and that undertake the application of the remedy to their social

afflictions,—who can conceive an idea of the condition of South America, when I tell you she is like a man who being sick refuses to take the simple remedies tendered him—common education—in order to be fit for liberty and republicanism.

Our *poor whites* do not endeavor to rid themselves of the moral discouragement in which they have been brought up, and the *wealthy whites*, educated after the colonial traditions of Spain, appear indifferent to evils not befalling them, directly nor indirectly, though they are the cause producing the disorders that destroy or stop the increase of wealth. It is your mission, gentlemen, to extend the benefits of education, from enlightening centers, over distant places covered still with shadows. We have to convey the light over the whole country, because the spots considered to be bright are only a twilight where night and day are yet in strife. You have the example so near, the results are so tangible, the fruit is so ripe as to be presented with all the perfections of form, color and exquisite taste; while to talk of common education among us is to speak of something unknown and remote. It is an utopia that only the course of time and generations can see realized.

The influence of law is powerless under such unpropitious circumstances. The legislator himself appears to be indisposed to believe and little solicitous, and when it is proposed to apply the income of the State to the diffusion of education, the people, able to pay contribution, do not comprehend their own interest in this new expenditure they are not accustomed to. I have witnessed in a South American legislature the sanction without opposition of the budget of war for four millions of dollars, and the bringing about of a stormy discussion over the amount of two thousand dollars, directed to support an educational paper like the *Massachusetts Teacher*. A Congress composed of enlightened young men and of old patriots have been opposed for ten years to the sanction of a law levying a tax for the common education of the people.

Societies so constituted need some external action to correct their errors of judgment in regard to the means of getting out of the vicious sphere in which they agitate themselves in useless strife; and this external action has to work on them,—and commences to work already from the United States. The greatness attained by this country is for others a matter of admiration, but admiration is followed by examination, and this will descry the secret spring, the regulator of this youthful machine, which is the general diffusion of education, and the spontaneous and constant efforts of the best citizens to carry it into effect.

Your labors, therefore, will not limit their wholesome influence to the Southern States. There stands besides far South America where some of the bright sparks of these discussions will go to shine, penetrating wherever the clouds darken, and an aperture shall be opened to let them in. The immortal efforts of Horace Mann are familiar to some of my countrymen. They know how far the American Association of Instruction has succeeded in twenty years of existence, with steadiness and zeal; and now they will know through me that you are preparing to finish the great work commenced by that great man, which is generalized by this benevolent institution.

A practical idea commences to be patronized in those countries, and only the

war kindled either by the political errors of Europe or stirred up by some barbarian coming out of the American forest, can delay its execution. Such is the idea of conveying to South America the complete systems of education with the laws and institution of North America, and with the intelligent men who might carry it into effect.

This idea is fully patronized by the government of my country, inasmuch as it will save rehearsals and errors inherent to inexperience. The day is not far distant when competent men, zealous missionaries of the great cause of education will be persuaded to come from the United States to direct normal schools, to be superintendents of schools in cities, and professors of both sexes by the hundred. to initiate the great march they are anxious to undertake, and which is delayed for want of reliable and experienced guides.

What a propitious occasion to display the energy of the American people? What a magnificent task for the noble ardor of the educationists? having a world before them, to perfect the work in one place, to initiate it in another, with a certain success, with the approbation of whole populations, and having before them the blessings of the coming generations.

Then the discussions of the Superintendents of Schools when assembled anew at Cincinnati, on the banks of the Ohio, or at St. Louis, in Missouri, on the Mississippi, would be repeated like an echo by the friends of education on the banks of the Orinoco, the river Plata, or at the skirts of the majestic Andes. That day is approaching, and the labors of this meeting in Indianapolis, will do a great deal to accelerate its welcome.

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[For the Educational Monthly.]

### WORDS ARE POOR.

Yea, words are poor at best; but feeble signs,  
 How dead and insufficient to convey,  
 Of Nature's aspects countless, changeable,  
 One lively and exact similitude.  
 A few imperfect names of perfect things,  
 Some general terms for action, quality,  
 And obvious relation,—these are all  
 The instruments with which e'en Poesie  
 Essays, laboriously essays in vain  
 To represent a single blade of grass,  
 To imitate a bird-song, or to tell  
 How looks a cloud, or feels a breath of wind.  
 Not even Shakspeare, to whom language gave  
 Such God-adjusted, full obedience  
 As water gives to that which makes it flow,  
 Or flowers give to that which makes them bloom,  
 Not even he could write what yonder child  
 Sees in the rose held in his loving hand.

W. H. V.

## School Officers' Department.

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*The articles included in this Department have special interest to school officers. Those not otherwise credited, are prepared by the editor. Brief communications from school officers and others interested in this feature of the MONTHLY, are solicited. Questions of interest to township boards of education, will receive due attention.*

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TOWNSHIP BOARDS OF EDUCATION are required by law to provide, by a township tax, the funds necessary to sustain the schools under their control "at least twenty-four weeks each year," and the funds thus provided are required to be so distributed that the several schools may be continued in session the same length of time each year. The intention of these provisions is clear, but their practical execution is attended with some difficulty, owing to the fact that the township boards have no control over the wages paid teachers. The duty of employing teachers and fixing their wages is entrusted entirely to the sub-district directors, who may in their contracts exceed or fall short of the estimates of the board. In one sub-district a teacher may be employed at \$50 a month and in another at \$25, and the school in the former continued as long as in the latter—not exceeding twenty-four weeks when such continuance will exceed the appropriations of the township board. Whatever the wages paid, the directors have the right, and it is their duty, to continue their school in session at least twenty-four weeks, and the board must "foot the bill." By paying lower wages than the directors of the other sub-districts, they may continue their school longer, reaching, it may be, twice twenty-four weeks each year. In other words, while township boards are required to furnish the necessary school funds and to distribute the same equitably, they can fully control neither the amount of funds expended nor the continuance of the schools. They can simply require the continuance of the schools at least twenty-four weeks, and forbid their longer continuance if the funds appropriated are exhausted.

The above facts disclose the weak point of the Ohio school system. The management of the schools is divided between the township and the sub-district school authorities. The system is a sort of compromise between the township and the sub-district plan, and, like most compromises, it lacks simplicity and unity. We hope to see the township system, pure and simple, adopted, and the difficulties which now beset the local administration of the schools removed.

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### WHY SCHOOL OFFICERS SHOULD TAKE A SCHOOL JOURNAL.

[Hon. John Swett, Sup't of Public Instruction of California, devotes nearly five pages of his last biennial report (1864 and 1865), to the *California Teacher*, the official organ of the State School Department. He urges with great force that it would be true economy for the State to furnish each school trustee (director) with a copy. We condense a few paragraphs:]

It must be borne in mind that the newspapers of the day contain very little educational matter; that few trustees ever have in their possession strictly



educational works; and hence they must remain ignorant of much which they ought to know, unless it be furnished through the pages of a monthly school journal. The suggestions of such a journal on school architecture alone would have saved during the past five years fifty thousand dollars, uselessly wasted on miserably planned school-houses and barbarous school furniture.

The school trustees are the immediate executive agents of the Department of Instruction. It matters not how excellent the school law, nor how heavy the school taxes, if the trustees fail in the proper discharge of their duties. They make or unmake the school. \* \* \* If they choose to employ an illiterate and incompetent teacher, the public money is wasted. If they erect an ill-planned, ill-ventilated, ill-constructed school-house, it remains for many years a monument of their incompetence. If they build none at all, the children remain in hovels which disgrace the State. If they reduce the ratio of teachers' salaries to the wages of a common laborer, there is no redress. If they take no measures for assessing a district tax, the children remain untaught or only half taught. If they think an old water bucket, a battered tin dipper, and a worn-out broom, all the school apparatus necessary, the teacher must lose half his labor for want of the proper appliances of education. If they make incorrect reports, the errors can not be corrected elsewhere. If they make no returns, the district loses the public money, and the children are defrauded of their rights.

Is the office of school trustee, then, one of little importance? Does it not require good judgment, common sense, experience, and, above all, a living faith in our American system of public schools? Is it not a wise, sound, judicious policy for the State to endeavor to raise the standard of qualification among trustees, and to provide means for thorough instruction in their duties, and in the needs of the schools? The universal complaint is, that school trustees are not interested in their duties, and are negligent in their performance of them.

A monthly journal of education would be generally read, and could not fail to excite a deeper interest on the part of school officers. It must be remembered that trustees are constantly changing, and new men are coming into office who must learn for themselves the routine of business. On the broad ground of true economy, it is the policy of the State to sustain such a journal, for the purpose of keeping in existence a thorough system of education. A salary of fifty cents a year to each trustee would not be an extravagant compensation for their many and responsible duties. If the trustees are awakened to an interest in education, if they deeply feel its importance, the whole community will be made alive.

In a State like this, where there is no class of men who have the leisure and inclination to devote themselves to school interests, where all are deeply immersed in the exciting cares of business, and the struggles incident to all new communities, they need to be aroused to action by special appeals, particularly on educational topics. Intelligence must precede all effective action. No school system was ever supported by ignorance or apathy, and schools are neither indigenous nor self-sustaining; they need mind as well as money—enthusiasm as well as taxes.

## Editorial Department.

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WE take pleasure in acknowledging our indebtedness to examiners in different counties of the State, for needed assistance in placing the MONTHLY in the hands of teachers. But for such assistance the great majority of the teachers of our common schools, for whose benefit the magazine is published, would be ignorant of its existence. Are we not fully justified in claiming that the examiner who uses the excellent opportunity offered him in the discharge of his duties to extend the circulation of the professional organ of the teachers of the State, thereby renders the cause of education valuable service? The fact that hundreds of teachers who have thus been led to take the MONTHLY, gratefully acknowledge their indebtedness to it, not only for needed stimulus and encouragement, but also for valuable ideas and suggestions, is the conclusive answer.

At the Cincinnati meeting in 1865, the State Teachers' Association recommended to the several Boards of School Examiners throughout the State, that one of the questions asked all candidates coming before them for certificates to teach, shall be "whether they subscribe for any educational journal, and what works they have read on professional topics."

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### THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW ON STATE EDUCATION.

The July number of the *North American Review* contains a lengthy review of the pamphlet, entitled "The Daily Public School in the United States." It pronounces it "careful looking," but finds its analysis "not quite so thorough or so methodical as it might seem at a hasty glance." The author's "gloomy" and "disquieting" views, respecting the success of our common schools, are not fully accepted, but some of his most absurd statements are rehearsed as though they were well-authenticated facts. Among these we find the groundless assertion that the attention given to advanced schools is everywhere attended by a neglect of primary schools—a mere assertion unsustained by facts. The truth is, the best primary or elementary schools in the country are found, as a general rule, where high schools and normal schools receive most attention and are the most liberally sustained.

But the *Review's* explanation of the supposed fact, differs from that of the author. Instead of attributing the low condition of the primary schools to the existence and support of advanced schools, it seeks for the cause in the character of these advanced schools. We quote as follows:

But the real evil, as it seems to us, is that the so-called advanced education often does not aim at education at all, but at something else—at a longer list of accomplishments, excellent perhaps in themselves, and in their proper place important and essen-

tial, but, when used in this way as a costume or decoration, sure to be the cover for pretense, to distract attention from the true ends of education, and substitute a vague wonderment for the intelligent interest of the public. The radical ailment which our author finds everywhere in the existing state of things, is not so much a want of action on the part of the community, as a want of interest. \* \* \* This want of appreciation, however, is not necessarily connected with any particular list of studies, nor does it follow at all from the fact that the studies are too much advanced for the majority of the people.

Again:

He puts it [the neglect of the primary schools] upon the diversion of public sympathy and support from the primary to the higher schools; but this might not be of itself a sufficient objection. The high schools, were they really higher, that is, if they taught better what it behooves everybody to learn, even if they did not come into so direct contact with the people, might yet have an indirect effect greater than anything that could be effected directly. The highest motives owe their efficiency with the mass of mankind to their direct and, as it were, refracted influence, in places where they have little direct effect.

The idea is advanced that the real difficulty is the attempt to conduct a system of education by the machinery of State administration. The *Review* says:

The original scheme of free schools in Massachusetts had nothing in it of the character of a State education; the officials were town officers, and the money was raised and spent by the towns. \* \* \* It is worth considering whether the apathy and want of interest complained of, and the want of vitality in the schools, may not be in some measure the consequence of a departure from the original idea,—whether in our zeal to help forward the good cause, and to reenforce it with material means and appliances, we have not partly smothered its spirit. Education in Connecticut was said (and the charge was not denied by those best qualified to judge) to have been “put to sleep” by the State School Fund—when it was so large as to supersede the necessity of taxation, and to have awakened only when taxation was resumed.

It is unquestionably true that the nearer the responsibility of maintaining schools is brought to those directly benefited by them, the greater the vital power and efficiency of a school system; but we fail to see either in this principle or in the facts of the case, a warrant for the conclusion that the State should abandon all assistance or direction in the work of public education. On the contrary, experience teaches that it is impossible to secure an efficient system of common schools without such assistance and direction, and this fact will account for the “departure from the original idea” which is lamented. The undeniable fact that the course of instruction in our public high schools is more solid and thorough than that in private academies and seminaries—that “they teach better what it behooves everybody to learn”—is, according to the *Review's* reasoning, a strong argument in their favor. How can the opponents of public high schools get around this fact?

The true policy is for the State to seek to maintain an efficient and comprehensive system of common schools *through* the people, and not independent of them. The State school tax should only be sufficient to sustain the schools a part of the year, and it should be distributed on the *condition* of a compliance by the local school authorities with certain stipulations, chief among which should be the raising of the necessary additional funds by local taxation, full power to levy local school tax being vested in the townships, towns and cities. The State tax should be used as a lever to lift up the system in all its parts, and to this end, it should yield a revenue not much exceeding one-half the funds required to sustain the schools. The Ohio system is believed to be a model in this respect; and we confess that it is with great surprise that we find Ohio cited

by the *Review* as an illustration of the smothering effect of a large State school fund, derived from sources other than taxation. It says, giving the author of "The Daily Public School" credit for the information:

In Ohio where the income of the school fund is one and a half millions, somewhat more than one-third of the children between five and twenty-one attended school "once or more during the year."

The fact is, the income of the Ohio school fund is less than *a quarter of a million*—a mere "drop in the bucket"—and about *three-fourths* of her youth of school age are annually enrolled in the schools. Ohio is one of the States which had, quoting the *Review*, "the good fortune to squander the large tracts of land given by the general government, before they became valuable." It is true that it distributes annually for the support of schools about one and a third millions of dollars derived from State taxation,\* but this, instead of smothering her school system, contributes largely to its vitality and efficiency. The progress made by the schools immediately upon the adoption of the system in 1853, was too marked to be doubted by any intelligent observer.

We leave the subject with the hope that no writer will hereafter commit the folly of basing an argument either upon the statements or the logic of "The Daily Public School." So far, at least, as the Ohio school system is concerned, it is a very unsafe guide. We would humbly suggest that *the imperfections of human nature* may be worth considering when looking for the cause of a want of proper appreciative interest in the schools on the part of the people. It is believed that there is a lack of proper interest in many other good things.

### NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body met at Indianapolis on the 15th of August, and continued in session three days. The officers were: President, J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania; Secretary, S. H. White, Illinois; Treasurer, James Cruikshank, New York.

The Association was welcomed to the State of Indiana by Governor Morton, who alluded, in appreciative terms, to the work and influence of the educators of the country, saying that they had in their hands the perpetuity and destiny of the American Republic. He discussed briefly and ably the necessity of teaching our youth the principles of the government, thus preparing them to participate more intelligently in civil affairs.

A neat response was made by President Wickersham, who attributed the warm reception the Association had received, to the fact that Indiana was very near the *heart* of the Nation.

The first paper was read by Hon. W. R. White, State Supt. of Free Schools, West Virginia. Subject: "*The Educational Needs of the Border States.*" It

\* The school revenue of Ohio in 1864-5 was as follows: Income from invested funds, \$223,279.36; from State taxation (distributed on condition that the districts sustain schools at least 24 weeks), \$1,325,013.62; from local taxation, \$1,634,607.53; from other sources, \$81,241.57.

stated that the great need was the removal of that social fallacy that divides the people into two general classes, and which seeks to elevate the one at the ruin of the other. The heaven-given axiom for humanity is, "All ye are brethren." Time, care and patience will secure the acceptance of this great truth which lies at the very basis of a free-school system. Another need, consequent upon the above, is an active and general free-school sentiment; but this is growing rapidly. The great need of the schools are better accommodations, and, above everything else, *better teachers*. The teachers' profession must be elevated in rank and reward to an equality with the other professions. The Border States make no appeal to Northern benevolence, and have nothing to ask of national beneficence, but they look to a triumph of their own energies and resources.

"The rudiments of empire here  
Are plastic yet, and warm,  
The chaos of a mighty State  
Is rounding into form."

The reading of this brief and well-written paper was followed by a general discussion of the subject. Hon. Daniel Stevenson, State Sup't of Schools, Kentucky, gave an encouraging account of the condition of the common schools in that State. During the war the schools suffered greatly—many were closed; but the system is rapidly approaching the degree of efficiency attained in 1860, when 4,696 free schools were taught some portion of the year. There are many private schools in the State.

Mr. Wines, a member of the loyal and heroic Legislature of Tennessee, was next introduced by the President, and greeted by the Association with hearty applause. In the course of his remarks he touched upon school affairs in Kentucky, in which State he was for many years a teacher and examiner. He hit the nail squarely on the head when he stated that a school system was to be judged not by its form but by its substance. He gave an amusing account of his experience as an examiner under the instructions of Dr. Breckenridge, who was then State Superintendent. The State "played" school. He rejoiced in the evidence that the schools of the State were improving.

The discussion of this subject was suspended to consider the question, "*What proportion of their time should the young spend in school up to the age of sixteen?*" The discussion was participated in by Messrs. Henkle, of Ohio; Bulkley, of New York; Orcott, of Indiana; Beard, of Missouri; Newhall and Van Bokkelen, of Maryland; Hosford, of Michigan; Wines, of Tennessee; and Rush, of Kentucky. Most of the speakers agreed in the opinion that children are sent to school too early, and, when young, are confined too many hours each day. Mr. Newhall advocated an improvement in the schools rather than a curtailment of school hours. Children might go to school earlier than they do if they could attend the right kind of a school. Dr. Rush kept the Association in a roar of laughter by narrating his early experience with the "from sunrise to sunset system." He could n't recommend the plan!

The subject was referred to a committee of three, consisting of Messrs. Hoss, of Indiana, Bulkley, of New York, and Brooks, of Iowa, who, on the last day of the session submitted a brief and sensible report, which was ordered to be published.

A paper was read by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, on "*The Duties*

of an American State in respect to Higher Education." The paper evinced much thought and careful preparation. It contained an earnest plea for higher education, but on attempting to give the points made, we find that they have vanished. Possibly the paper may have lacked point somewhat, or covered too many.

The subject was discussed by Messrs. Andrews and White, of Ohio; Brown (Prof.), McRae and Nutt, of Indiana; Van Bokkelen, of Maryland; Hosford, of Michigan; and Jones, of New York. Dr. Andrews, who opened the discussion, maintained that the State should support efficient common schools by State taxation; should provide by law for good high schools to be supported by local taxation; and should give all possible encouragement to colleges, but without assuming their control or management.

Dr. Van Bokkelen claimed that the State should maintain good primary schools in each school district; a public high school in each county; and a university for the State—that a system of public education should embrace the higher as well as the lower grade of institutions, and all should be supported and directed by the State.

All the speakers agreed in the opinion that high schools are an essential part of a State school system; and the statement that public schools should meet the educational wants of the communities in which they are maintained,—should carry instruction "to the highest point consistent with home-boarding"—was received with general approbation. The author of "The Daily Public School" should make a note of this fact. The educators of the country everywhere repudiate his crudities upon this subject.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, Cruikshank, of New York, White, of Ohio, Northrop, of Massachusetts, and Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, was appointed to present a report upon the subject at the next annual meeting of the Association.

The annual report of the President was an able paper on a very important subject, viz: "*An American Education for an American People.*" The central thought of the address was, that our schools should fit every American youth to discharge those duties that may devolve upon him as a citizen of a democratic government. The education necessary to meet this requirement, was sketched in a masterly manner. We specify only three elements, viz: (1) It should teach the fundamental principles of democratic institutions; (2) it should be patriotic; (3) it should be religious.

The following resolutions, introduced by Prof. Hoss, of Indiana, were unanimously adopted:

*Resolved*, That our common schools should be required by legislative enactment, first, to teach, so far as may be practicable, the fundamental principles of our government, both State and national; second, to inculcate love of country; third, to encourage respect for authority and obedience to law.

*Resolved*, That the teaching of the principles of the government should never be prostituted to the inculcation of mere partisan dogmas.

The next paper was read by Hon. O. Hosford, Sup't Public Instruction of Michigan. Subject: "*The Relation of the National Government to Education.*" We did not hear this paper, but learned that it took a decided position

against compulsory attendance. This would indicate that the real theme discussed was the relation of the *State* to education.

The next topic discussed was, "*The Condition of the South as Respects Education.*" In the absence of Dr. Lindsley, of Tennessee, who was to read a paper upon the subject, Mr. Wines, of the same State, addressed the Association. He drew a gloomy picture of education in the South, and affirmed that common schools ought to be everywhere established, not by the national government, but by the States. He gave a synopsis of the school bill now before the Legislature of Tennessee. It provides for the education of colored as well as white youth, and the speaker declared that the friends of the bill would lose it rather than give up this humane and just feature. The sentiment was applauded by the Convention. He had strong hopes that the bill would pass when the Legislature again convened.

The question, "*What service can this Association render in the work of establishing free schools in the States lately in rebellion?*" was next considered. Speeches were made by Mr. Hailman, of Kentucky, and Mr. Beard and Mr. Nash, of Missouri. The gist of their remarks was that Northern men and Northern ideas are not over popular in the South, and whatever is attempted by the Association, must be done indirectly and quietly.

The following resolution, introduced by Mr. Hailman, of Kentucky, was passed:

*Resolved*, That a committee of seven be appointed, with power to add other members, to correspond with Southern educational men, with a view of enlisting their talents and energies in the establishment of free schools throughout the South, and to collect and distribute among these men reports and other public documents pertaining to education and calculated to further their object.

The chair appointed Messrs. Hailman, of Kentucky; White, of West Virginia; Chaney, of Maryland; Norris, of Ohio; Hosford, of Michigan; Northrop, of Massachusetts; and Phelps, of Minnesota.

On Thursday evening a lecture was delivered by Rev. Jesse H. Jones, of New York. Subject: "*The Psychology of St. Paul, being a new Interpretation of the Flesh and the Spirit.*"

The concluding paper, prepared by Prof. W. P. Atkinson, of Massachusetts, was read, in his absence, by Richard Edwards, of Illinois. It opened with a vigorous discussion of the value of an *exclusively* classical education, and the conclusion reached was that such an education is worthless as a preparation for life's duties. The question constituting the subject of the paper, viz: "*Is there too much time spent in the study of the classics at our colleges?*" was answered emphatically in the affirmative—the logical conclusion of the argument being that, in a college course, *no* time should be spent in the study of the classics. The writer did not, however, follow his logic quite so far as this; but rather contented himself with an earnest protest against all attempts to build up the higher education of this country upon the narrow basis of Greek and Latin. The fact that the course of training in American colleges is not so exclusively classical as in the English universities, was taken as an admission of the weakness of the English system, and a more radical and complete departure from it, was strongly urged. The paper was written expressly to provoke discussion and in this it was eminently successful.

The paper was referred to a committee consisting of Dr. Andrews, of Ohio Dr. Benton, of Indiana, and Dr. Johnson, of Pennsylvania, who are to make a report upon the subject at the next meeting.

Mr. Phelps, of Minnesota, offered the following resolutions:

*Resolved*, That a committee of five be appointed by the chair to co-operate with the committee of the National Association of School Superintendents, to urge upon the Senate of the United States the passage of the bill of the House of Representatives establishing a National Department of Education.

*Resolved*, That the thanks of this Association are hereby tendered to General Garfield for his able, eloquent and successful advocacy of the bill establishing a National Department of Education, and that he be respectfully requested to furnish a copy of his speech for publication with the transactions of this meeting.

The resolutions were adopted and Messrs. Richards, of Washington, D. C., Cruikshank, of New York, Shortridge, of Indiana, Hart, of New Jersey, and Coburn, of Pennsylvania, were appointed the committee.

On motion of Rev. L. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, appropriate resolutions were passed on the death of Dr. Wayland, of Brown University, R. I., and Dr. Nott, of Union College, N. Y. Eulogies were pronounced by Mr. Edwards, of Illinois, Rev. Mr. Day, of Indianapolis, and Mr. Phelps, of Minnesota.

Resolutions, introduced by Mr. Henkle, of Ohio, on the death of Charles F. Child, of St. Louis, Mo., and Charles H. Gildersleeve, late of New York, were also passed.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

*President*—J. M. Gregory, Michigan.

*Secretary*—L. Van Bokkelen, Maryland.

*Treasurer*—James Cruikshank, New York.

Fourteen Vice Presidents, and eighteen counsellors, one from each State represented, were also chosen.

As we were absent the last half-day of the meeting and have seen no account of the proceedings, we are obliged to conclude our remarks at this point.

In contrasting this meeting of the Association with the one held last year at Harrisburg, Pa., we find a marked improvement in a few particulars. 1. Much less time was wasted transacting unimportant business. 2. The papers read were, as a general rule, briefer, and quite as able. 3. More time was given to discussion—but in this item there is still room for improvement.

It is a noticeable fact that a majority of the papers were on cognate subjects, and covered, to some extent, the same ground. The educational needs of the South received a commendable share of attention, but the discussion took a very wide range and lacked both point and method. But little new information was elicited. We were indebted to our friends from Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee, for the greater part of the spice and fun enjoyed. They were like ducks in a new pond, and when the revolving year brings the National Teachers' Association together again, we hope to meet loyal teachers from every Southern State. May God protect and strengthen them in their blessed work.



## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**McNEELY NORMAL SCHOOL.**—This institution, as most of our readers know, is located in the village of Hopedale, Harrison county. It has an able and experienced corps of teachers, and is modestly accomplishing a thorough and good work. Messrs. Brinkerhoff and Regal have not a particle of sham in them or about them. We are glad to see that the new scheme of study provides for a thorough course of instruction in the English language, in which its genius will be taught from the works of English authors, rather than exclusively from abstract treatises on its technicalities. This course, as well as that in didactics in the normal department, is in charge of Prof. Regal.

**ADAMS COUNTY.**—A normal school, under the supervision of Wm. Coleman and Rev. Geo. A. Hutchison, was held at North Liberty, Adams county, in July last, continuing three weeks. About fifty teachers were in attendance. The success of the first session induced Mr. Hutchison to announce a session of six weeks, to commence September 18th, and to be conducted in connection with his academy. We are glad to see these indications of healthy progress in old Adams.

**MEIGS COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The teachers of Meigs county held a very successful institute of one week at Racine, closing July 27th. The county examiners, Messrs. McLaughlin and Yarnall, by attempting to form a new association, awoke the old one which had been silent for five long years, and verily forgotten. The number enrolled was fifty-two. Prof. E. T. Tappan, of the Ohio University, conducted the exercises in arithmetic and geography; Pres. I. W. Andrews, of Marietta College, those in grammar, spelling, and punctuation, and E. E. Brown, of Greenfield, those in elocution. Mr. Brown also gave two entertainments in dramatic reading. Mr. L. S. Thompson, of Sandusky, conducted the class in penmanship. The evenings were well improved by addresses from Prof. Tappan and Pres. Andrews on appropriate topics. The instruction was purely normal, and awakened a new professional spirit among the teachers. An important movement was made in organizing auxiliary associations in the townships. The institute adopted resolutions instructing its officers to memorialize the General Assembly in favor of a State normal school, also to ask for a law establishing county superintendents.

**FAIRFIELD COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The normal institute which began July 8th, and continued five weeks, was attended by ninety-five teachers. Messrs. Reinmund, Hartaler and Harper constituted the corps of instructors, and did most efficient and valuable service. The county institute was held the week succeeding the normal institute, and was attended by one hundred and twenty-five teachers. Mr. Crosby, of Cincinnati, was present, and rendered good assistance. Action was taken in favor of the establishment of a State normal school; and all the teachers present signed a petition to the Legislature, praying for county supervision. Many copies of educational works, including Wickersham's, were sold. A new impetus was given to the common school cause which can but result in great good.

**UNION COUNTY.**—The first institute held in Union county, at least for many years, convened at Marysville on the 9th of July, under the direction of Rev. A. E. Thompson, Supt. of the Marysville Union School. T. W. Harvey was the principal instructor. We were present two days. The attendance was good, and a good work for the schools of the county was accomplished.

**INSTITUTES.**—Our information respecting most of the institutes held in the State in July and August, is too general and meagre for special notices. We make brief references to several:

**GREENVILLE.**—Fifty teachers present; A. J. Rickoff, of Cincinnati, Prof. B. L. Lang, of Kenyon College, and Hon. J. A. Norris, instructors; session continued two weeks.

**KENTON.**—A good institute; T. W. Harvey principal instructor; earnest attention and lively interest.

**DAYTON.**—An excellent normal institute, continuing four weeks; eighty teachers present; instructors—Messrs. Irwin, Cook and Fenner; lectures by T. W. Harvey, A. J. Rickoff and Hon J. A. Norris.

**BATAVIA.**—Normal institute continuing in session two weeks; about one hundred teachers present; John Hancock, Frank Browning, Z. W. Fagan, J. H. Laycock, J. C. Morris, Geo. H. Hill and G. W. Felter, instructors and lecturers; enthusiastic session.

**TIFFIN.**—Normal institute continuing three weeks; S. J. Kirkwood and Prof. A. Schuyler, instructors; a successful and profitable session; good attendance.

Several other institutes were held, but we have as yet received no reports from them.

**TEACHERS' INSTITUTES** continuing in session five days will be held this fall as follows: Wooster, Sept. 24; Ashland, Oct. 22; New Lisbon, Oct. 29; and Ravenna, Nov. 5. Several other institutes will soon be announced.

**OF COURSE NOT.**—A county examiner recently asked an applicant for a certificate, to subscribe for the MONTHLY. He declined, adding—"I can't understand them professional things very well."

**J. C. HARTZLER**, for several years principal of the North Grammar School, Lancaster, O., has taken charge of the public schools of Galion. We congratulate the citizens of this growing town on their good fortune. Mr. H. is one of the live teachers of the State. On leaving Lancaster, he was made the recipient of valuable presents from his pupils.

**GEO. C. WOOLLARD**, late Sup't of the public schools of Middletown, O., has been elected first assistant of the Second District School, Cincinnati.

**A. ARMSTRONG**, last year principal of the schools of Ripley, O., is assistant teacher in the Columbus High School.

**BENJ. R. GASS**, of Antioch College, has taken charge of the First Ward Union School of Lansing, Mich. Salary \$1,200.

**MISS FANNY WAIT**, of Portsmouth, O., for two years principal of the Xenia High School, has taken charge of the High School at Mansfield, at a salary of \$800. Miss W. has so far more than honored the recommendations of her former teacher, and we have no fears that she will not continue to do so.

**SAMUEL P. BATES, LL.D.**, Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania, has been appointed to the position of State Historian. He is entrusted with the duty of collecting and writing a complete history of Pennsylvania Regiments in the service of the United States during the Rebellion.

**JAMES CRUIKSHANK, LL.D.**, editor of the *New York Teacher*, has been elected Assistant Superintendent of the Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y., at a salary at \$2,500.

**T. C. MENDENHALL**, late principal of the Salem High School, has taken charge of the public schools of Middletown, O.

**F. M. HALL**, late principal of the Post School at Chattanooga, Tenn., has taken charge of the public schools at Granville, O., at a salary of \$900.

**J. C. BARNER**, of Granville, O., has taken charge of the public schools at East Walnut Hills at a salary of \$1,400.

I. M. CLEMENS, formerly superintendent of the schools of Granville, O., has returned to this pleasant village and opened an academy for boys. He is an excellent teacher, and will make the Granville Male Academy a first class institution.

WILLIAM WATKINS has resigned the charge of the public schools of McArthur to accept the superintendency of the schools of Marion, O. Salary \$1,000.

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## BOOK NOTICES.

ELEMENTS OF INTELLECTUAL PHILOSOPHY. By the Rev. JOSEPH ALDEN, D.D., LL.D., late President of Jefferson College. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1866.

However much we disagree with the theories set forth in this moderate sized volume, we are willing to say that it is as good a class-book on Intellectual Philosophy as we have seen. The style of presenting the subject is decidedly superior to that found in Dr. Wayland's work on the same subject. Dr. Alden disagrees with Hamilton in his view that secondary qualities "are not in propriety qualities of bodies at all." He says: "The error of regarding the secondary qualities as existing only in the mind, has arisen from applying the same term to the mental affection and the cause of that affection." He also disagrees with Hamilton and Stewart on the relativity of knowledge. Stewart says: "It is not matter or body which I perceive by my senses, but only extension, color, figure, and certain other qualities which the constitution of my nature leads me to refer to something which is extended, figured, colored." Alden asserts that this is not true, but that "we intuitively cognize matter or body as extended, figured, colored, etc." He maintains with McCosh, "that we never know qualities without also knowing substance. Qualities, as qualities, distinct from substances, are as much unknown to us as substance distinct from qualities." Hamilton's theory of unconscious mental modifications is objected to by Alden. Suppose that a distant wave is inaudible, that even ninety-nine such waves are inaudible, but that one hundred such waves become barely audible, or constitute what Hamilton calls the "*Minimum Audibile*." The least audible is then made up of one hundred inaudibles, and hence the conscious mental act of hearing is made up of one hundred unconscious mental modifications. To this view Alden replies: "The vibrations caused by one wave fail to affect the ear so as to produce a cognition of sound; the vibration of one hundred waves do so affect the ear as to produce a cognition of sound. This is a fair statement of the facts of the case. It furnishes no proof of unconscious mental agency." The reader of Mill's recent work on the Examination of Sir Wm. Hamilton's Philosophy, will remember that Mill also criticises this view of Hamilton's in the first chapter of the second volume. He says: "But it is a supposition consistent with what we know of nature, that a certain *quantity* of the cause may be a necessary condition to the production of any of the effect." We regret that the limited space allowed to us will not permit us to discuss the chapters on the cognitions of Space, Time, Relations, Beauty, Rectitude, as well as those on Cause and Effect, Reasoning, Mathematical Reasoning, The Syllogism, Memory, Association, Imagination, The Will, Attention, and Understanding and Reason—Faith—Infinity. W. D. H.

THE STUDENT'S PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY. By MORTON & LEEDS. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

The beautiful illustrations and elegant letter press of this book are creditable to the publishers. It well represents the later discoveries, and would be useful to a teacher who desires the latest information in a small compass. It contains 122 pp. 12mo. of

physics and 160 pp. of chemistry; and in consequence the chemistry proper is so abridged and condensed as to be very dry to the ordinary student. The matter is, however, well-arranged, and good judgment is shown in the selection of facts, except that in the "Chemical Physics," where the authors have made certain favorite topics far too prominent, to the neglect of others equally important. If the physics had been entirely omitted, and the space devoted to a fuller elucidation of pure and applied chemistry, the work would have been much more acceptable in the class-room.

**A GUIDE TO GEOGRAPHY:** embracing Primary Reading Lessons, Written and Oral Methods combined; Map Exercises, systematically arranged; a Chart of Latitude and Longitude; and Calculations in Mathematical Geography. By GEORGE S. ORMSBY, A.M., Sup't of Public Schools, Xenia, O, Philadelphia: Published by E. H. Butler & Co. 1866.

This little work is another evidence of a wide-spread dissatisfaction with the ordinary method of teaching geography. It guides the learner to the subject by a new and pleasant path, and presents to him a minimum course of important knowledge, instead of a swamp of useless details. The routine teacher will look in vain for question and answer, "cut and dried," and will find that he has got something more to do than to turn the crank and tighten the screws. The first part consists of simple reading lessons which contain descriptions of the characteristic features of the earth's surface. Each lesson is followed by a syllabus of oral instruction to guide the teacher in the work of impressing upon the pupil's mind the facts he has learned, and leading him to new facts of interest. It strikes us that these oral lessons should precede and prepare the way for the written ones, but on this point we may be in error. The second part takes up the subject of local geography in a manner somewhat similar to our favorite method; but the number of names given for location are much fewer than in any other work. A want of space forbids a fuller description of this novel work. The live teacher will find it worthy of examination.

**SCHOOL REGISTERS.**—An accurate record of the attendance of pupils should be carefully kept by the teacher as the first step in the preparation of school returns, and, to this end, every school should be supplied with a suitable daily register. In several of the States this is done by the school department, but in this State the matter is left to the local boards, and has, hitherto, been greatly neglected. By reference to our advertising pages it will be seen that registers, specially adapted to the schools of this State, are now published.

**OUR YOUNG FOLKS.**—We are glad to know that this capital magazine has found its way into thousands of Buckeye homes. We find it almost everywhere we go, and both old and young speak enthusiastically in its praise. May each number contain nothing but the pure gold of truth. Ticknor & Fields, Boston, Mass., are the publishers: Subscription price, \$2.00 a year.

**MERRY'S MUSEUM.**—The Fifty-second Volume of this magazine commenced with the July number. All new subscribers commencing with this month will receive a fine steel engraving of Lieut.-General Grant. Price \$1.50 per year.

**SCHOOL FURNITURE.**—We take pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to the advertisement of Cole, Nelson & Co., Cincinnati, in this number. Their new "Combined Desk and Seat" is an important improvement, and their floor-fastening is the best we have seen.—We can also commend Chase's furniture, and especially its Cleveland agent, Mr. Bigelow.

We find our pages full, and several book-notices and our professional article not included. We will next month begin with "unfinished business."

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A WORD ABOUT COLLEGES.

BY S. A. N.

A prominent trustee in an Ohio college has proposed for public discussion this question: "Ought not the salaries of professors to depend in part, at least, on tuition fees?" The good and sufficient answer to this question is, that the tuition fees in the best colleges of the United States are merely nominal; and that the tendency is to abolish fees altogether, as has already been done in the University of Michigan. In the face of such competition, it is idle to suppose that the most eminent scholar in one of our feebly sustained colleges could materially add to his support by tuition fees. Even without unusual competition this could only be done in great centres of learning or in a densely populated district; and then only in studies requiring special adaptability on the part of the professor, or peculiar appliances for advancing the student. We have yet to learn that any man in this country has maintained himself by instructing pupils in studies of a higher grade than are usually taught in academies and high schools, although several eminent teachers have tried the experiment.

But taking it for granted that the question was asked through the earnest desire of advancing the interests of our colleges, we wish to pursue the general topic of "Collegiate Administration"

further ; and consider one of the many methods by which students may be attracted to our own institutions.

It is well to meet the difficulties squarely, and obviate them if possible. It can not be denied that the colleges in Ohio are less influential than they ought to be ; that students prefer institutions at the East ; and that our colleges are languishing for want of pupils. Something ought to be done to counteract this condition of things, and that speedily. It is a disgrace to the State that it does not provide all needed instruction within its own borders. That one of our colleges will first secure its legitimate quota of pupils that soonest meets the popular demand for cheap, thorough and complete training in all branches of education. A college ought to provide instruction in any study that is demanded by the people, whether it accords with the theory of the faculty or not. It is not the time to argue the merits of a classical training when by far the largest proportion of students deliberately reject it. Let it be granted that nothing can supply the lack of a knowledge of the classics, yet half a loaf is better than no bread ; and if a student can extend his acquaintance with mathematics, English literature, the natural sciences, and acquire some knowledge of German or French, he will be better off than without them. It is precisely to this complexion that this question has come. It is safe to say that nine-tenths of the youth of our State stop short of a good education, because our colleges imperatively demand that matriculates should be well grounded in Latin and Greek. The schools in the rural districts are not competent to prepare boys for admission to college, and the consequence is, that the boys, having obtained the rudiments of a good English education, are either unwilling or unable to meet the expense of a preparatory school, and are uniformly reluctant to spend the time necessary for the acquisition of the dead languages ; whereas, if this obstacle were removed, many would gladly avail themselves of the opportunity of further studies in the higher branches. For such students our colleges ought to supply a place. It is a duty imperative upon them to extend their high privileges to the greatest number possible, no less than to make eminent scholars of the few.

The colleges have every thing to gain by such a course, and nothing to lose. They would lose nothing, for the number of

classical students would not diminish, nor need their discipline be less rigid. They would gain, first in numbers, then in popularity and fame, and by consequence in increased usefulness. Many of the eastern colleges have made provision for students not in the classics. Scientific schools or departments have been established in Harvard, Yale, Union, Amherst, Brown, and in Michigan University. Our colleges have certainly good precedents for departing from the time-honored routine.

Nevertheless to accomplish all that can be expected of them, they ought to be better endowed. Our colleges are lamentably poor, and no professor in any of the more noted colleges of the State receives a salary adequate to his position; nor has any college in the State a faculty large enough to make any proper division of labor. Lord Bacon, speaking on this very point, declares that "able and sufficient men" can not be had "except their condition and endowment be such as may content the ablest man to appropriate his whole labor and continue his whole age in that function and attendance; and, therefore, must have a proportion answerable to that mediocrity or competence of advancement, which may be expected from a profession, or the practice of a profession." The professors in our higher institutions have been too long regarded in the light of missionaries, whose chief reward lies in the consciousness of doing good. This ought not so to be. The blessings of sound education reach every man, whatever be his condition, or extent of knowledge, in better manners, higher civilization, and more enlightened government. It is unjust that all should profit by the sacrifice of the few. The sustaining of these institutions is the duty of every citizen who wishes well to his race; and the endowment they need should be given them, not grudgingly, as man gives a beggar whose honesty he distrusts, but with open hand, as paying the debt due the whole human kind.

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A THANKFUL soul holds consort with the music of heaven. The little birds do not sip one drop of water, but they look as if they meant to give thanks to show us what we should do for every drop of grace.

## AN EDUCATIONAL REMINISCENCE.

BY T. W. H.

It was seventeen years ago. I was principal of an academy in one of the western counties of this State. A large number of my scholars were teachers: some of them have since won honorable positions in the profession. It was the day after the close of the fall term. I was sitting in my office, vainly endeavoring to contrive how to make \$300 of income balance \$325 of outgo. I felt slightly discouraged at pecuniary prospects, much fatigued, and a little out of humor.

While in this amiable frame of mind, a man from a remote part of the country entered my office—rough-looking, clad in homespun rather the worse for wear, the legs of his pants tucked into the tops of his boots, a dilapidated, wide-brimmed hat shadowing his unshaven face, and armed with an enormous cart-whip. He introduced himself, without ceremony, as one of the directors of his school district in search of a teacher—remarking that the school was small, *very backward*, and “almost any one could teach it.”

PRINCIPAL.—There is but one not engaged for the winter whom I can recommend. He may be prevailed upon to teach, provided the *pay* is sufficient.

SCHOOL DIRECTOR.—We will pay ten dollars a month, and not a cent more. I hired a first-rate hand, last week, for eight dollars a month and board. Two dollars more than that is enough for a school-master.

PR.—You say your school is very backward. It will always be so if you reason in that way in the employment of your teachers. I never recommend the kind you seem to want. There are plenty of them to be had, but I shall not point them out to you. If you are anxious to have a *good* school, go to the house yonder, inquire for Richard Sterling, offer him twenty dollars a month and a permanent boarding place, for he will not board around, and agree to sustain him in every thing he thinks best to do, either in the instruction or discipline of your children. He is a thorough scholar, an independent thinker, and when he knows he is right, will have his own way.



SEN. D.—We are not a set of fools, on the “Base Line,” if we do live in log houses. We think we know something about how a school should be taught, as well as other folks. We have never hired any of the teachers you get up here, for we are down on the new-fangled notions you teach. The old way is good enough for us. If this fellow you recommend will agree to do as we tell him, will teach twenty-six days for a month for ten dollars, I will hire him; not otherwise.

PR.—Then it is useless for you to spend any more of your valuable time here. Richard will not be dictated to by any one who does not know more about his business than he does—neither will he teach for the pitiful salary you seem to think quite sufficient for one who has spent four or five years in acquiring an education. You need a missionary down on the “Base Line,” and I know of no one who can do you more good than he. He may not know so much about farming and making money as you do—but he knows a great deal more about how a school should be conducted. I do not think you *are* fools—but your neighborhood has the reputation of not being over-wise in school matters. The “old way” you speak of may be a very good one, but it has failed in your case, according to your own admission. The new-fangled notions you complain of are simply philosophical methods of instruction, the suggestions of observation and experience. Unskilled hands can not use them. Take my advice. Like sensible men hire for once a thorough, well-informed teacher—stand by him through thick and thin—take him at his own terms,—and if you are not satisfied with him in the spring, report to me, and I will apologize for being a little blunt and cross to-day.

SEN. D.—Well, I believe, I’ll go and see him, any how. Want to see what a school-master worth twenty dollars a month, and who’s too proud to board around, looks like. You *are* rather chilly, for first acquaintance, I must say, stranger. Good bye.

I sat down by the window, and resumed the task of endeavoring to solve my problem, but my attention was soon drawn to the singular movements of the “Base-Liner.” He walked resolutely across the street towards Sterling’s boarding house—stopped and hung down his head as if in deep thought—opened the gate with a quick, nervous jerk—shut it again, slowly and carefully—looked around furtively as if fearful lest some one was watching him—

walked briskly away nearly a square—turned around and walked hesitatingly back again—stopped at the gate—took off his hat and wiped his forehead—walked nearly as far as before, but in an opposite direction—turned on his heel, and commenced energetically cracking his whip, walked back again to the gate—this time mustering resolution to go to the door, which he assaulted with a tremendous double knock. Sterling opened it, and in few moments the two went in out of my sight.

Having come to the wise conclusion that I must either reduce my expenses or raise my tuition fees, and having written a brace of letters, I made my way towards the post-office. Met Sterling, who informed me that after a stormy time, he had engaged to teach for eighteen dollars a month, all Saturdays being holidays—was to have a permanent boarding place, whatever maps and charts he wanted, and had a written agreement in his pocket, in which the "Base Liner" became responsible for three months' wages, in case he was mobbed out of the district, or was not seconded and sustained by the directors in all his efforts to instruct and discipline the school.

Having cares and worries enough of my own during the winter term, I paid little attention to the schools of my county. Sterling informed me by letter that he was "getting along tolerably well"—had some trouble, at first, with two or three overgrown rowdies, whom the directors promptly expelled, giving notice at the same time that the authority of the teacher would be sustained under all circumstances. I did not see him before he returned to resume his studies in the spring. The "Base Liner" brought him home, hitched his team at the gate, and came across the street to see me, without even offering to assist him in carrying his trunk into the house. A new suit of clothes and a sharp razor had so changed his appearance that I did not recognize him. Grasping my hand, he gave it a hearty shake, with "How are you, old fellow?" I begged to be informed whose hand I had the honor of shaking.

SEN. D.—Why, don't you recollect me? Just think a minute—Base Line, you know—ten dollars a month and board round, ha! ha!—Dick Sterling—why, you *must* know me. You never told so much truth in so short a time in all your life.

The ludicrousness of our first meeting recurred to me at once,

and after a few common-place remarks about the weather, I asked him how high the educational barometer ranged in his neighborhood?

SCH. D.—Clear up. We've had the best school in the county. Dick has converted us all—missionary, you know, ha! ha! He's a stubborn scamp—just as you said he was—but he knows how to keep school. Our children have learned more this winter than in all their lives before. We are going to build a new school-house, and he's coming back to teach for us next winter—thirty dollars a month, he! he! We want a school ma'am for the summer. Can you recommend one?

PR.—How much will you pay?

SCH. D.—*Pay!* Now you dry up! *Name the gal!*—that's all we want you to do.

I watched this school several years. It became a beacon light to the region roundabout. I have not heard from it since my removal from the county, but have no doubt the fruits of the earnest, intelligent, independent labors of Richard Sterling can be seen there to this day.

(*To be Continued.*)

## NOTES: ORTHOEPICAL, ORTHOGRAPHICAL, ETYMOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL.—No. 4.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

17. *Commence*. Marsh says, "*Commence* is used by good writers only as a transitive verb, and as such requires the participle or participial noun, not the infinitive, after it. The phrase, *I commence to build*, now occasionally employed, is therefore not sanctioned by respectable authority. At the same time there is no valid *grammatical* objection to its use. The French, from whom we borrowed this verb, say *commencer a parler*, or *commencer de parler*, according to circumstances, and our restriction of it to a technically transitive character is purely conventional." I find it used passively and therefore transitively by Huckluyt, and by Strype in 1534. Shakspeare has "*did commence rough deeds*,"

and "doth commence his suit." It is used by Rogers intransitively. He has "*to commence* after this life." Shakspeare also has, "He the anthem doth *commence*." In the Edinburgh Review, for March, 1827, in an article on the "Social and Industrial Capacities of Negroes," supposed to have been written by Macaulay, occurs an intransitive use of the word. "No sooner was security given to these Maroons, than improvement commenced." Alford says, "We never *begin* anything in the newspapers now, but always *commence*. I read lately in a Taunton paper, that a horse '*commenced kicking*.' [This would be right according to Marsh.] And the printers seem to think it quite wrong to violate this rule. Repeatedly, in drawing up handbills for charity sermons, I have written, as I always do, 'Divine service will *begin* at so and so; but almost always it has been altered to '*commence*;' and once I remember the bill being sent back after proof, with a '*query, commence?*' written against the word. But even *commence* is not so bad as '*take the initiative*,' which is the newspaper phrase for the other more active meaning of the verb to *begin*."

18. *Each other*. Goold Brown says: "The reciprocal terms *each other* and *one an other* divide, according to some mutual act or interchangeable relation, the persons or things spoken of." This remark I think is correct. He says in the next sentence: "*Each other*, if rightly used, supposes two, and only two, to be acting and acted upon reciprocally; *one an other*, if not misapplied, supposes more than two, under like circumstances, and has an indefinite reference to all taken distributively." After testing this assertion by the reading of a dozen years, I have come to the conclusion that *each other* is not restricted by good writers to two. The words "*rightly used*" mean "used in accordance with the custom of the best writers and speakers." We are no more bound to interpret *each other* as *each*, *the other*, than *each*, *the others*, or *each*, *an other*, or *each*, *others*. Indeed usage gives all these meanings. Hence Brown's remark is only a grammarian's whim. Draper has, "multiple stars revolving round *each other*," "physical influences thus following *one another*, and bearing to *each other* the inter-relation of cause and effect," "into arbitrary periods [five], sufficiently distinct from *one another*, though imperceptibly merging into *each other*," "all men \* \* when compared with *each other*," "the ages \* \* pass by insensible gradations into *each other*." Mansel has,

"Words, as thus employed, resemble algebraic symbols, which, during the process of a long calculation, we combine in various relations to *each other*." John Stuart Mill has, "What were previously thought to be distinct powers in Nature, are identified with *each other*." I have noticed seven instances of *one another* in Mill's Examination of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy, and in five of these, only two objects are referred to. I have noticed thirty-two instances of *each other* in Hamilton's Logic, and in more than half of these, more than two objects are referred to, and in most of the remaining instances, the reference is doubtful. Hamilton in his "Discussions" has, "These three ideas severally suppose *each other*," and in the other instances observed in his "Discussions," more than half refer distinctly to more than two objects. Out of thirty-one instances of *each other* in Macaulay's Essays, there are twenty-eight in which more than two objects are referred to. I have noticed ten instances of the use of *each other* by G. P. Marsh, in eight of which more than two objects are referred to, the other two being doubtful; also eleven instances by B. W. Dwight, in all of which more than two objects are referred to; also eleven instances by Max Muller, in all but one of which more than two objects are referred to; also ten instances in Bohn's edition of Cæsar, in eight of which more than two objects are referred to. These instances, together with hundreds of others that I have noted, prove conclusively that the usual teaching in reference to *each other* and *one another*, is unsound.

19. *Supplement*. The use of this word as a verb has been objected to. The following is from the Edinburgh Review, July, 1864, p. 22:

"Again, we can not admit the authority of usage, when it is clearly opposed to the principles of language. There is, we fear, ample authority, amongst writers of the present day, for the use of the word 'supplement,' not as a noun substantive, which is its proper meaning, but as a verb active in the sense of to supply what is deficient, to complete. We have seen it used of late years by prelates and judges, who ought to have abhorred such a solecism; nay, we will even confess, so infectious has it become, that it has, once or twice, crept, notwithstanding our utmost vigilance, into these pages. 'Supplement' is by its form the thing added or supplied, not the act of supplying it. You might just as well say that instead of appending another page to your book, you intend to appendix it."

The first sentence in this quotation contains a strange doctrine, since the principles of language are nothing but usages. It

amounts to this: "We can not admit the authority of usage, when it is clearly opposed to the usages of language." No instance of "supplement" as a verb is given by Richardson; it was, however, used by I. Taylor (1759-1829). Whether any earlier use of the word as a verb can be found, I am not prepared to say. We have the authority of More and Fuller for the use of "detriment" as a verb, and of the *Eclectic Review* and *Nichol* for the use of "implement" as a verb. It must not, however, be supposed that we have no common verbs ending in *ment*. *Experiment* and *compliment* are in good use as verbs. As to "supplement" conveys a meaning different from to "supply," I am inclined to think that we ought to accept "supplement" as a verb as well as "compliment."

20. *Transpire*. A correspondent writes: "I was disappointed in your being silent on the absurd use of *transpire* (i. e., to become known) as synonymous with to *happen*." Although there may be some sections of the country in which this use of the word is common, yet I have seldom observed it either in print or in conversation. Nearly every teacher will remember the lines addressed to Dr. Moyce, beginning with

"Dear doctor, let it not *transpire*,  
How much your lectures we admire."

Lord Chesterfield, in a letter dated January, 1748, directed to S. Dayrolles, said: "This letter goes to you, in that confidence which I always shall, and know that I safely may, place in you; and you will not therefore let one word of it *transpire*." In Cowper's Poem on Conversation, I find, lines 481-4:

"Is it incredible, or can it seem  
A dream to any, except those that dream,  
That man should love his Maker, and that fire,  
Warming his heart, should at his lips *transpire*."

De Quincey wrote: "The story of Paulina's and Maximilian's mutual attachment had *transpired* through many of the travellers." Chesterfield also wrote: "If they have raised a battery, as I suppose they have, it is a masked one, for nothing has *transpired*."

The figurative meaning of *transpire*, as set forth in these quotations, was objected to a hundred years ago by Dr. Johnson. Of the meaning "to escape from secrecy into notice, to become

known," he said; "A sense lately innovated from France, without necessity."

Of the meaning "to happen," I make the following quotations:

"He [the author of the 'Life of Dr. Adam Clarke'] often talks of *transpiring*, where most other people would talk of *passing* or *elapsing*."—*British Critic*.

"Our newspaper writers talk of a business or an event *transpiring*, when all they mean is, that the business was transacted, or the event happened."—*Prof. Malden in the Transactions of the Philological Society*.

"The last meaning of this word [*i. e.* to happen, occur, come to pass] is of recent introduction, and is common in the United States, and it seems to have now become somewhat so in England; yet this use of it has been censured by both English and American writers."—*J. E. Worcester*.

"This sense of the word, which is of recent introduction, is common in the United States, especially in the language of conversation and of newspaper writers, and is used, to some extent, in England. Its use, however, is censured by critics in both countries."—*Webster's Dictionary*, last edition.

21. *Guess*. A correspondent says: "Whilst you were bearing your testimony (as we, Friends, are apt to say) against the absurd use of *expect*, why did you say nothing of the universal Yankeeism—I *guess*?" I add the following comments:

Lambert, an English traveler, in speaking of the New England people, said: "Instead of *imagining*, *supposing*, or *believing*, they always *guess* at every thing."

"The employment of *guess*, to express a vast variety of mental processes,—to think, to presume, to suppose, to imagine, to believe, &c., &c.,—was one of the earliest peculiarities of speech observed in America."—*C. A. Bristed*.

"The use of this word, as synonymous with *to suppose*, *to believe*, *to think*, has been said to be almost peculiar to New England. It is true that use of it is very common here—probably much more so than in Great Britain."—*Worcester*.

"We thus see that the legitimate, English sense of this word is *to conjecture*; but with us, and especially in New England, it is constantly used in common conversation instead of *to believe*, *to suppose*, *to think*, *to imagine*, *to fancy*. From such examples as the words *to fix* and *to guess*, it will be seen that while on the one hand we have a passion for coining new and unnecessary words, and often in a manner opposed to the analogies of the language, there is on the other hand a tendency to banish from common use a number of the most useful and classical English expressions, by forcing one word to do duty for a host of others of somewhat similar meaning. This latter practice is by far the more dangerous of the two; because, if not checked and guarded against in time, it will corrode the very texture and substance of the language, and rob posterity of the power of appreciating and enjoying those masterpieces of literature bequeathed to us by our forefathers, which form the richest inheritance of all that speak the English tongue."—*John Russell Bartlett*.

Webster's Dictionary (last edition) says : " It is a gross vulgarism to use the word *guess*, not in its true and specific sense, but simply for *think* or *believe*; as, I *guess* the mail has arrived; I *guess* he is at home."

Halliwell defines *to guess*, as used in various dialects, in England, *to suppose*, *to believe*, and this Worcester thinks is the meaning in the following quotations :

"She, *guessing* that he was a gardener."—*John* xx: 15, *Wicliffe's Translation*.

"If they would yield us but the superfluity, while it were wholesome, we might *guess* they relieved us humanely."—*Shakespeare*.

"An Hebrew, as I *guess*, and of our tribe."—*Milton*.

"Once in twenty-four hours is enough; and nobody, I *guess*, will think it too much."—*Locke*.

I can see no strong reason for objecting to the use of *guess* for *think*, *suppose*, or *imagine*, when there is an element of doubt in the thing *guessed*. Hence I assert that the examples in Webster's Dictionary, as given above, are allowable, and that they are not gross vulgarisms. It would, however, be a gross perversion of the word to use it instead of *know*. Pickering says: "The greatest abuse of this word is *guessing* about things well known."

"The signification of this word has been so perverted in this country, principally by its use in reference to things *known* to the speaker, at the moment he *guesses* concerning them, that, though much used in conversation, our good writers appear to drop it altogether.

"It is often met with in English authors, but is always used, so far as I have been able to ascertain, in reference to things *uncertain*, never to things that are known."—*Seth T. Hurd*.

## AMONG THE INSTITUTES.

MR. EDITOR: Learning last summer that yourself and various other learned gentlemen were on the war path, doing valiant service in the cause of correct education and of the rising generation among teachers' institutes, it came into the head of "this humble individual" to "swing around the circle" a little on his own account, and see what he could see. So thrusting a copy of the constitution and a clean shirt into his carpet-bag, and a pencil and note book into his pocket, he sallied forth with a clear conscience and the best intentions.



I am, Mr. Editor, naturally modest—those who know me best think it my besetting sin—but withal am of a sanguine temperament, with an inclination to build the tallest kind of castles—in Spain. It is needless to say that this modesty and this sanguine humor are continually at war with each other,—the latter urging me to speak out in meeting, when I ought to hold my peace; the former urging me to retire into my hole and take the hole in after me, when I ought to present a bold front, and do battle manfully for what I conceive to be the right. You will often find other humble individuals afflicted in the same way. But I have no design to present an autobiographical sketch of myself to you and your readers, however much you and they might feel interested in it, nor to hold out any provocation to either to count the I's on a page. My design is simply to present you with the result of my observations while swinging around my little circle.

It is scarcely necessary to say to you who have had such ample experience, that the spirit of the teacher-pupil in most of the institutes I had the pleasure of visiting, was admirable. The large majority of them seemed greatly in earnest in striving to learn of a better way of discharging the responsible duties pertaining to their noble vocation. It can not be said with truth, I think, that that portion of teachers who so cheerfully give up their summer vacation to this purpose, with its no inconsiderable inroad on their slender pecuniary resources, are dead or lacking in interest in their profession. On the contrary, I think we may challenge any other profession to exhibit a like devotion. The misfortune is, that more of the teachers are not thus devoted, and that those needing most the advantages afforded by institutes are the last to avail themselves of them. There are several classes of these. First, those like your correspondent, Old Foggy, who think the old way as good as any—and a great deal better; and who snort at a new thing as a shying horse does at sunlight on water. These are generally of that ancient and venerable class of pedagogues who have an abiding faith in Pike's arithmetic and Kirkham's grammar, and teach around in country districts a quarter at a time,—and who have their pupils go through the spelling-book two or three times before beginning to read, and learn the alphabet by saying the letters over in regular order, forward and back. They are fossils belonging to the lower silurian. Second, young

men abounding in a fullness of all knowledge—in their own esteem—and who don't care to go to the institute because Robinson, who knows so much less than they do, is to be one of the teachers. These usually are young men just let loose from College, and who are very careful to impress it on your mind that their assumption of the role of the school-master is but a temporary expedient to enable them to raise the necessary wind to hoist them into one of the other professions. Nothing can be done for one of that sort. Third, those who farm or follow some kind of a trade during the summer, and teach the winter school in their own district, because their neighbors want them to do it. There is nothing to be hoped from these either. Fourth, young ladies who teach alone for pin money, to be expended in crinoline and fine dresses, and who hope their connection with the profession may be very temporary indeed, and that they shall be among the first to escape through the natural gap provided for such—marriage.

In addition to these classes are those who have a legitimate excuse for non-attendance, whose pittance of pay is so small as to forbid them the luxury, and those whose misfortune it has been to try one of those institutes so poorly managed and so utterly dry and devoid of interest, as to disgust them at the outset.

Of those who did attend, I observed that quite a number seemed to do so for the sake of the fun, and to look on all the exercises in the light of a joke—at times it seemed to impress them as rather a dry joke—then they would lie over until the funny man came on the boards again, to refresh them with his antics.

I have been led to believe from what I saw, that the number of men qualified to teach a class of teachers with profit to them, is rather limited. It requires a rare combination of talents and acquirements to fill this responsible place; and the success of an institute, like that of a school, depends almost entirely on its principal teacher. If he be a sleepy-headed, wooden drone nothing can save it from the most ignoble failure. If a man possesses all the wisdom of Socrates, Plato, and Solomon, with the erudition of a Bacon, Newton and Porson thrown in, and yet is a slow, heavy man, all I have to say is, "don't invite him to run your institute" for his wisdom and learning's sake. He will prove too heavy a load for it, and will most assuredly break its back-bone. I have seen such stand up and talk by the hour with about as much

vivacity and expression in their manner, as there is in the cast-iron pump that stands in the middle of our public square. Then there are the teachers great on specialties, who trot around the same track day after day, showing off the paces of the same veritable old hack, and who, however acceptable they may be at first, in the end prove to be terrible bores. It does n't take long to suck such oranges dry.

Another thing I noticed. A number of the teachers in the institutes I visited, pursued the lecturing plan to what seemed to me too great a length in their teaching. They did n't seem to comprehend the necessity, nor to possess the skill to draw their classes into the discussion of the topics they professed to handle. Besides they seemed too often to be more anxious to display themselves than their subjects. Their harangues were in general extremely metaphysical, and of a profundity that the plummet of the ordinary mind would entirely fail to fathom. Now I beg to intimate to all such, at the risk of being thought presumptuous, that such lecturing is valueless and fails of its object, and that the speaker does n't appear so wise as he supposes. The simpler the manner in which a subject is presented, the better and the more interesting that presentation. A lump of chalk and the black-board are the most eloquent of school-masters, and there is no danger of overworking them.

As I have already said, it is hard to find a teacher thoroughly fitted to give instruction in an institute; but I know a few whose services are invaluable. Their vivacity and spirit are so unflagging—their resources so varied and unfailing—their presentation of their subjects so clear and simple, and their whole manner so admirable, as to render their instruction a source of perpetual delight. In fine, to repeat an expression made in regard to one you and I wot of, “they completely fill the bill.” These teachers with their broad and elevated views, are doing a great work—scattering broadcast through our country seed that shall ere long spring up and bear noble fruit. To managers of institutes we would say, secure the services of such at every risk, and be sure to avoid your little great men. You have no use for them. Every thing they touch dries up.

In some of the institutes I observed, too, that there was too much of mere academic instruction, and too little of the normal.

If I understand the design of an institute, it is to teach how to teach, and not to teach the different branches except incidentally.

I have heard it intimated by prominent educators, that when compared with a regular normal school, these institutes, lasting but a few weeks, can do but little good. I can not agree with them. I have no disposition to undervalue normal schools, but, after all, must not the great body of our teachers rely on their county institutes for their professional training? The attendants on the institutes have this advantage, that if they are properly managed, they will, from year to year, have an opportunity of witnessing the best methods and of becoming familiar with the views of a large number of the leading teachers of the country, while those attending a normal school are restricted to the methods and views of a single set of teachers.

If this finds favor in your eyes, Mr. Editor, you may hear from me again.

Yours, most respectfully,

SCHOOLVILLE, O., Oct., 1866.

A. B. ZED.

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## ILLUSTRATION OF A METHOD OF TEACHING ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY.—No. II.

BY T. E. SULIOT.

*Teacher.*—Let us try to find out for ourselves the law of the intersection of chords in a circle. You all know what chords are. You also remember that the term *segment of a line* is understood by mathematicians in a more general sense than that popularly given to it; that by it is meant the distance of each extremity of a line from a point taken either in the line itself or in the line produced.\* This being premised, we may proceed with our subject. We wish to find out whether the same law regulates all the possible intersections of chords. We must, therefore, ascertain first in how many ways two chords may intersect.

\* I need hardly remind the intelligent teacher, that merely to save space and an additional diagram, do I suppose the teacher to volunteer this definition of segment. By rights he ought to get it out of the scholars themselves.

*C.* (one of the scholars)—They may intersect obliquely or at right angles.

*T.*—True. In the Greek elements of geometry published by Euclid, of Alexander, about 300 years before Christ, that distinction was the foundation of two cases demonstrated separately. But as we have postponed our investigation until we may become acquainted with the laws of similar triangles, that distinction is no longer necessary. Is there, then, no other essential difference in the mode of intersection?

The class can not see any.

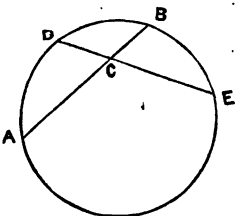
*T.*—Recollect that the segments of a line may be determined by a point taken either in the line itself or in the line produced.

*D.* (another scholar)—But chords can intersect only in the circle itself.

*T.*—Not, if they be produced?

*D.*—Oh, yes, I see now. Then there are two cases, according as the chords intersect in the circle or without it.

*T.*—Let us begin with the first case, as the more obvious. You remember I said sometime ago, that I purposely postponed the consideration of this property of chords until you had become acquainted with the law of similar triangles.



*E.*—But I see no triangles.

*T.*—You can make them by drawing lines.

*E.*—Join AD and DB.†

*T.*—Of course you can always join any two points by a straight line. But will the triangles thus formed bear any relation to each other? Are they equal, equivalent or similar?

No one in the class can show that they must be, under all circumstances, equal, equivalent or similar.

*T.*—It is plain, therefore, that we shall gain nothing by those two triangles.

*Class.*—Join AE and BE.

*T.*—Don't you see that it would be just as bad?

† The reader who is acquainted with the mechanical or economical difficulties of the subject, will readily understand why I can not multiply diagrams as I would on the blackboard, and why I must request him, to draw or conceive the lines indicated in the text.

*Class.*—Join AD and BE.

*T.*—Yes, or else AE and DB. Now, what do you know of the two triangles ACD and BCE?

*F.*—The angles at C are equal, because they are vertically opposite.

*T.*—That is one step gained. What more do you want?

*Class.*—Another angle.

*H.*—I have found one. The angle D is equal to the angle B, because, being inscribed angles in the same segment of the circle, they are measured by half of the same arc AE.

*T.*—Then the triangles are ——?

*Class.*—Similar.

*T.*—Therefore?

*Class.*—Their corresponding sides are proportional.

*T.*—Let some one then give us a proportion.

*M.*— $AD : BE = AC : CE$ .

*T.*—That is quite true; but AD and BE are not the intersecting chords: so we have nothing to do with them. M, give us another proportion?

*M.*— $AC : CE = DC : CB$ .

*T.*—Form an equation.

*M.*— $AC \times CB = CE \times DC$ .

*T.*—Express that result in general terms. What are AC, BC, CE, DC?

*M.*—The segment of the lines AB and DE.

*T.*—*Chords*, I word rather say. Then whenever two chords intersect in a circle ——?

*M.*—Whenever two chords intersect in a circle, the rectangle formed by the segment of one chord is equal to the rectangle of the segments of the other.

*T.*—*Equal*?

*Class.*—*Equivalent*.

*T.*—That was very well done. Now let us suppose the two chords so situated that they can not meet, unless produced beyond the circle. To make the analogy between the two cases more palpable, I will letter both diagrams alike. Produce the chords

AB and DE until they meet at C, what are their segments with respect to the point C?

*Class.*—AC and BC are the segments of AB; EC and DC are the segments of DE.

*T.*—Well, then, we must try to form similar triangles as before. What points shall we join?

*Class.*—Join BD and AE. (See note †.)

*T.*—Are the triangles BCD and AEC similar?

*Class.*—They have the angle C common.

*T.*—What else?

*G.*—The angle CBD is equal to the angle CAE.

*T.*—May be so. If that be true, what would follow with respect to the line BD and AE?

*Class.*—They would be parallel.

*T.*—Are you then prepared to affirm that, whenever two chords meet, if produced without the circle, the lines joining their corresponding extremities must be parallel?

*Class.*—No. They may or may not be.

*T.*—We must try other angles then. Can the angle CBD be proved to be equal to CEA, or, “if not, why not,” as lawyers say?

*S.*—The angles ABD and CBD are together equal to two right angles, because they are adjacent; also ABD and AED, because they are the opposite angles of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle. Take away the common angle ABD, there remains the angle CBD = AEC. Therefore, the two triangles AEC and BDC are similar. Therefore,

$$AC : CD = EC : BC, \text{ or } AC \times BC = CD \times EC.$$

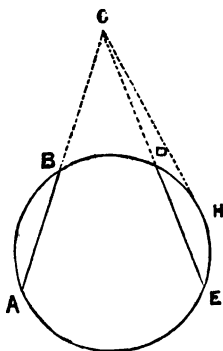
*T.*—Very well done, indeed. Express that result in general terms.

*S.*—The rectangles formed respectively by the segments of two chords intersecting at a point without the circle, are equivalent.

*T.*—Then the law is general, whether the chords intersect within or without the circle?

*Class.*—Yes.

*T.*—Would it have done as well, in the second case, to join AD



and BE? [N. B.—Let the reader draw the lines or conceive them drawn.]

*Th.*—Yes. The triangles CAD and CBE are similar. For the angle C is common; the angle A is equal to the angle E, because they are each measured by half the arc BD.

*T.*—Very good. Which is the simpler demonstration?

*Class.*—The last.

*T.*—Yes. But I am glad that some one hit upon the other, in order that you should perceive that there often is more than one way of arriving at the same result, and that one demonstration may be simpler, and, *therefore*, more elegant than another. There is one point more to consider: Does the reasoning depend, in any way, on the magnitude of the angle C?

*Class.*—No.

*T.*—The smaller the angle C becomes, the nearer will the two chords be to each other. Suppose the angle C to vanish altogether, what will become of the two chords?

*Class.*—They will unite into one line.

*T.*—*Coincide* is the usual term. Then the two rectangles  $AC \times BC$  and  $CE \times CD$  will also become identical. On the contrary, as the angle C increases, the two chords will diverge farther from each other. Suppose now that only one chord, DE for instance, moves away from AB, without altogether leaving the circle, until the angle C is as great as possible, what will become of the chord DE?

*R.*—It will be a mere point.

*T.*—And the whole line CE will be a tangent to the circle at that point. Call this tangent CH. [N. B.—See last diagram.] As the two points D and E have coincided in H, what becomes of the rectangle  $EC \times DC$ ?

*Class.*—There is no longer a rectangle.

*T.*—Has it then become equal to 0?

*Class.*—Yes.

*T.*—In that case, the other rectangle  $AC \times BC$ , that has not vanished, is also equal to 0. Can that be?

*R.*—The rectangle will still be there, only CD and CE have become equal.

*T.*—What then?

*R.*—It will be a square.



T.—Just so. But let us try to prove it in a more business-like way, by our machinery of similar triangles. What lines shall we draw?

V.—BH and AH. We have the triangles ABH and BCH.

T.—We could not make any thing out of these, I fear. Try the triangles CAH and BCH.

V.—The angle C is common; but I do not see any other equal angles.

L.—The angle CHB is equal to BAH, because it is formed by the chord BH and a tangent CH, and the other angle is subtended by the same arc BH, therefore they are both measured by half that arc; therefore, the two triangles are similar; and

$$AC : CH = CH : BC, \text{ or } BC \times AC = CH^2.$$

T.—Very good. This truth may then be appended as a corollary to our theorem about the intersection of chords; for the two truths or properties are very closely related. In many books of geometry, you will find these three truths demonstrated independently, as three distinct theorems. But this mode of presenting them, effectually conceals from the learner the beautiful analogy which binds them all into one fundamental truth, of which these three theorems are only different cases. In all your future geometrical studies, be then on the look out for such analogies, by considering whatever truth you are investigating under all the possible varieties of such circumstances as are only accidental, and do not affect the essential or fundamental conditions of the question. In short, learn to *discuss* a geometrical question as you discussed the problem of the “couriers” or of the “lights” in algebra.

You may go now; we have had a good time.

NOTE.—This way of drawing out from the scholars themselves what you wish them to know, may be slower, more laborious to the teacher; but will it not stimulate and develop in them the inventive faculty, help to make them *original*, not merely *second-hand* mathematicians?

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FREEDMEN'S BUREAUS and Civil Rights bills are valuable expedients for the hour; but the vital wants of the South are a *new plow*, a *new pulpit*, and a *new school-house*.

## UP-NORTH LETTERS.

No. X.

CLEVELAND, *September*, 1866.

FRIEND WHITE: Here we are, at the autumnal equinox; and almost a year has gone by since my last letter to the MONTHLY was written, though not many weeks intervene between my letters to its blonde editor. I use the word *blonde* as applicable to his name and character, rather more than to his complexion. And even at this late day I should not appropriate the requisite time for writing a letter for your readers, were it not for your frequent appeals to me for such service. I should be very far from certain that my letters could interest your readers, were it not for certain decided intimations which you give me, from time to time, to that effect. If they do any body any good, I am glad of it. From the beginning, their intention was not to be argumentative, solid and elaborate, but light, rambling and off-hand.

The third week of our current school year closes to-day. We now employ 118 teachers, including two of the German language, both graduates of the University of Berlin; one of French, a graduate of the University of France, and whose diploma bears the signature of Guizot; one of Penmanship, and one of Vocal Music. Of these teachers, eighteen are gentleman and one hundred ladies. Twenty of them are new teachers; that is, they are new to us, though most of them have had experience in other places. Very greatly to our regret, Mr. Charles H. Adams, Principal of the West St. Clair St. School, was obliged, on account of ill health, to resign that position near the close of our last school year. His place has been filled by the election of Mr. Levi Rodgers, a graduate of Dartmouth. Mr. A. G. Hopkinson, after a year's absence, has resumed the principalship of our West High School. During my connection with the Cleveland schools, about 170 different teachers have been employed; and of them all, not one has died while thus employed, and but two since their resignation and removal from our city.

Our schools still suffer from a chronic want of additional buildings, though in this respect we are somewhat better off than we

were one year ago. We now hope for greatly additional improvements in this regard; for the contract for our new Hudson Street School was this week let to responsible builders. The building, alone, will cost \$46,000. The site, fencing, furniture, and so forth, will probably raise the amount to about \$70,000. It is designed for seventeen teachers, and pupils to match. I think it will be one of the best district school buildings of my acquaintance in Ohio. Would that it were ready for present occupation. We could fill every room, and then need three additional houses of the same capacity.

You inquire why I did not attend the educational meetings at Indianapolis last month; and I reply that my absence therefrom was not intentional, but unavoidable; perhaps I should say, providential. While spending a few days at the pleasant town of Marquette, on Lake Superior, I, like our distinguished ancestor, "fell from the estate wherein I was created," or rather from the planks over which I was running, and inflicted a painful wound upon my face, which so marred my good looks that for two weeks I regarded myself as in a condition which forbade that I should rush into the presence of the handsome men and women who are always found greatly in the majority at all national meetings of teachers.

At one of our recent teachers' meetings here, we discussed, not for the first time, the subject of school punishments; what, other than corporal, are appropriate. We do not forbid the infliction of bodily chastisement, neither do we encourage its frequent and indiscriminate practice. The rules established by our Board of Education touching this subject, are as follows:

"In inflicting corporal punishment—which should be resorted to only in cases of extreme necessity, arising from flagrant and persistent disobedience—no other instrument than a common rod or whip shall be employed.

"2. Teachers shall make to the superintendent monthly reports of all cases of corporal punishment in their respective schools."

The object of the former of these rules is to prevent the use of ferules, and other like instruments.

During our last school year, we had an enrolment of 9,270 pupils; and the cases of corporal punishment inflicted were 1,872. It thus appears that during the 200 days of schools, one child in every seven enjoyed a whipping; that is, provided no one child

experienced this happiness but for a single time. This, however, was not the case; for I judge that not more than one in twenty-five of the children in our schools received this chastisement. In our High Schools, which enrolled 277 pupils, there was not one case of corporal punishment. The same is true of thirty of our schools of lower grades. Nearly all these punishments were inflicted upon *boys*, which is good evidence that *mankind* are ever-so-much worse than *womankind*; or if not worse, certainly more unfortunate.

I do not regard the number of corporal punishments inflicted in our schools the last year, as unreasonably large, as schools go nowadays. Our average daily attendance was 5,333; school days 200; days of schooling, 1,066,600; which divided by the number of punishments (1,372), equals 777. Suppose a single pupil had received all the schooling and all the punishments, he would have been whipped but once in almost four school years.

I am not at all prepared to say that corporal punishment should never be inflicted in schools. I doubt not that in some cases it is productive of greater good than could be secured by other means. But these instances are, in my opinion, not very numerous, and I fully believe that half of all the punishments of this kind which are inflicted in families and elsewhere, result only in injury, moral as well as physical, to those for whose good they are designed. Here I come back to the question already stated: What other forms of punishment are proper in the administration of school government?

It is almost dark now, and it is time for me to go home. I can not, therefore, attempt an answer to this inquiry at present. I may resume the subject at a future time, but be that as it may, I wish that some of your able correspondents would take the matter in hand, and give us their opinion on the subject. I believe that the discussion of the question may be made useful to many of the younger class of teachers in our State, and elsewhere.

YOURS TRULY.

POSTSCRIPT.—As my letter of a month ago does not appear in the October number of the MONTHLY, I conclude that it reached you too late. I will add a few items of local interest.

Mr. Sidney A. Norton, for nine years teacher of the sciences

in our Central High School, has resigned that position for a similar post in the Mt. Auburn Seminary, in or near Cincinnati. We greatly regret his leaving, for he is a most successful teacher. We can but admire the wisdom of our Cincinnati friends in coming to Cleveland for teachers of the best quality; but we object to their taking them on such short notice. We have scores of teachers that would do much to improve the schools of Porkopolis, but we seriously object to parting with them, even for a purpose so necessary.

Mr. Norton's place has been supplied by the appointment of Mr. Theodore W. Hopkins of this city, who two years ago graduated at Yale College.

Some two hundred of the students of Oberlin College are, through the autumn, making special preparation for teaching next winter. They are under the training of Rev. W. N. Bartlett, Principal of the Preparatory Department. A course of lectures by gentlemen from abroad has helped on the work. Messrs. Ingersoll and Cowdery, of Sandusky, Thome and Smyth, of Cleveland, have lectured within the fortnight past. Y. T.

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### SCHOOLS OF MIAMI COUNTY.

MR. EDITOR: Perhaps a letter pertaining to the schools of this county may not prove uninteresting to your readers. We have good school-houses as a general thing, but they are poorly supplied with apparatus.

The sub-district schools continue in session from six to nine months each year. The summer terms are taught almost exclusively by women; and they constitute about one-third of the teachers employed in the winter school. The wages for this year will average about as follows: Male teachers, per month, \$42; female, \$33.33 $\frac{1}{3}$  winter term, and \$22 summer term.

Although our school examiners have raised the "standard of qualifications," I am satisfied it would be better for both schools and teachers if they would raise it still higher. Good teachers and good wages are certainly the result of *strict* examinations. When a high standard is maintained by the examiners, and our local directors adopt that sound maxim—"Good teachers at the price of good teachers, but, at any price, good teachers"—then and only then, may we expect the rising generation to become educated men and educated women. C. D. WRIGHT.

TROY, O., Sept. 21, 1866.

## Editorial Department.

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A **WRONG** estimate of the amount of copy handed the compositor, has crowded out the School Officers' Department, and otherwise relieved us of much editorial labor. The practical character of the contributed matter has, however, clearly turned our mistake into the good fortune of our readers. The **MONTHLY** does not often contain so many suggestive, and readable contributions.

To **THE PERSON** sending us the largest number of cash subscribers between the first day of November and the first day of January, we will present *a copy of the latest edition of WEBSTER'S UNABRIDGED DICTIONARY*, which is generally acknowledged to be the best English dictionary published. The retail price is \$12.—Next month we shall announce the winner of the same prize offered in our September issue. Over three hundred of the new subscribers then called for, *have been received*, and still there is room!

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### THE COLLEGE QUESTION.

The public high school has largely superseded the classical academy, and to it the college must and ought to look for the great majority of its students. But in order that the high school may properly prepare boys for college, its regular course of study must provide the necessary preparatory training. All experience shows that the high school can not be depended upon to provide *special* and *separate* instruction for this purpose. Its pupils must step into college, if at all, from the regular classes. Besides, the boy who at the age of sixteen or seventeen forms the purpose to go to college, should find himself on the direct road, instead of being obliged to turn back and spend a year or two in special preparation on some neglected study or studies.

Now how stands the matter? A prescribed amount of both Greek and Latin is required as a condition of admission to college; but Greek is taught in very few high schools, and so long as these schools are under the control of officers elected by the people, it is not likely to be taught. Besides, there is no demand for Greek in our high schools *except as a preparation for college*. It does not even have a place in the course of study in our female seminaries.

Latin, on the contrary, is widely taught in our high schools. It is studied by both boys and girls. The number of high school pupils pursuing Latin last year, was, according to the School Commissioner's report, 1,865—a number greater than were studying any other higher branch, United States history and algebra excepted.

It is evident from the above facts, that if Greek was not included in the pre-

paratory studies, and the amount of preparation in Latin, mathematics and natural sciences was proportionally increased, our high schools (as well as first-class academies) would be able to fit boys thoroughly for college, and without any considerable expense. Greek would thus be brought wholly within the college course, and might, if necessary, be continued to the close of the senior year. Here, as it seems to us, is a practical remedy for that want of harmony now existing between our high-school and college courses of study, which is unquestionably one cause of the small number of students found in regular college classes—we say “regular,” since a majority of the students in those western colleges which have the largest attendance, are pursuing irregular and partial courses of study. We feel confident that the change suggested would enable our high schools to prepare three boys for college where they now prepare one.

This suggestion which we first made in our last report as State Commissioner (p. 62), has been very favorably received by college men. We have received letters from several college presidents heartily indorsing it, and we learn that several of the best colleges in the State have taken steps looking to its actual adoption.

The subject seems to us worthy of a thorough discussion, and we invite the friends of liberal learning to use our pages for this purpose.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

**OFF TO INDIANA.**—The teachers of this school-revived State have again tempted us over the border. The following letter shows how the thing was done:

RICHMOND, IND., Sept. 12, 1866.

HON. E. E. WHITE—*Est'd Friend*: I have not heard anything from you yet in reference to attending our Institute. I hope you can come. Will give you *one hundred and twenty-five dollars* for the week commencing Oct. 29, and your expenses. You to deliver two evening lectures during the week. Please let me hear soon what you can do. I somehow feel that I can depend on you. One hundred and fifty teachers in this county want to see you. Our schools are all moving on well.

With many wishes for your welfare,

I am your cordial friend,

JESSE H. BROWN, *Sch. Ex.*

We have also accepted an invitation to attend a county teachers' institute to be held at Indianapolis, during the five days commencing December 17th. We anticipate a pleasant time at each of these institutes.

**AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.**—The thirty-seventh annual meeting of this body, the oldest educational association in the country, was held at Burlington, Vt., on the 7th, 8th, and 9th days of August, Rev. B. G. Northrop, of Massachusetts, presiding. The meagre report of the proceedings which we have seen, indicates that some of the important educational questions of the day were ably discussed. The first day was devoted to the discussions of this large subject: “Our schools: their influence on Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, Civil Policy and Morals.” In the evening a lecture was delivered by Moses T. Brown, late of Ohio, on “Reading as a

Fine Art," which greatly pleased the audience. On the second day Hon. John D. Philbrick, of Boston, spoke on "Graded Schools;" Rev. Milo C. Stebens, of Springfield, gave a lecture on "Practicability;" and Prof. J. S. Tyler, of Amherst College, on "Socrates as a Model Teacher." The subjects of "Reading as a Fine Art" and "Reconstruction in relation to Education," were ably and fully discussed. The conclusion reached in the latter discussion was, that "Education must be the cement of the Union." The third day was devoted to a discussion of "The Study of the Constitution of the United States and the Different States;" a crossing of swords by Prof. Harkness, of Brown University, and Prof. Atkinson, of Cambridge, on "The Place of the Sciences and the Classics in a Liberal Education;" and an address by Hon. George F. Edmunds, United States Senator from Vermont, on "Learning, the Principal Safeguard of Liberty and Order."

The meeting was largely attended, and is pronounced the best held for years. The officers for the ensuing year are: President, W. E. Sheldon, Boston; Recording Secretary, Charles A. Morrill, Boston; Treasurer, Granville B. Putnam, Boston.

**WAYNE COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The first session of this institute, as organized under the present law, was held at Smithville during the five days commencing Sept. 24. About one hundred teachers were present. Hon. John Brinkerhoff, of Wooster, and J. B. Eberly, of Smithville, assisted the writer in the work of instruction. School Commissioner Norris and Dr. Firestone, of Wooster, gave each an evening lecture.

We take pleasure in adding that the schools of Wooster were closed, and all the teachers in attendance. A large club of subscribers to the MONTHLY was raised. —A fine building is being erected at Smithville for the accommodation of the excellent academy now in charge of Mr. Eberly.

**STARK COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The second annual session of this institute was held at Canton during the five days commencing Oct. 15. Owing to the fine weather for farming purposes, or to some other cause, but few teachers from the country districts were present, but the teachers of Canton and Massillon, having been permitted to close their schools for the purpose without loss of pay, were all present, the former four days and the latter two days. The deepest interest was manifested in the exercises. Messrs. Worley and Smith, of Canton, Mr. Henkle, of Salem, and Mr. Kimball, of Massillon, assisted in the work of instruction. A petition to the General Assembly praying for the organization of a system of county supervision, was circulated for signatures—and a large club of subscribers to the MONTHLY was raised. A good work has been well begun in Old Stark.

**INSTITUTES.**—A successful teachers' institute was held at Martinsville, Clinton Co., in August, under the direction of A. J. Hixson, principal of the public schools of this village.—We received circulars announcing normal institutes at Chillicothe and St. Marys, to commence July 30. We have delayed notice, hoping to receive some report of the proceedings. We also learn that a normal institute was held at Waynesville, Ohio, under the supervision of Mr. J. C. Ridge. We have no particulars.—The institute announced at Ashland has been indefinitely postponed—cause not known. Teachers' institutes commencing on the dates named, will be held this month as follows: New Lisbon and Akron, Oct. 29; Ravenna and Berea, Nov. 5; Warren and Marietta, Nov. 12; and Parrisburg, Nov. 26.

**FREMONT.**—The citizens of this enterprising town have voted a tax of \$16,000 to erect two school-houses—the one for the high school to cost \$12,000. We have received an intimation that this is one of the good results of the institute held there last spring. The schools are prospering.



THE TEXT BOOK ASSOCIATION of Philadelphia will remunerate a competent writer for preparing, on a special plan, a history of the United States for the use of schools. Applications will be received, and particulars furnished, by

JOSEPH WALTON, Sec'y, No. 413 Walnut St., Philadelphia.

WISCONSIN.—A letter received from a friend in this State gives an encouraging view of its school affairs. He thinks the school-buildings excel those of any other State in excellence and beauty. Among the live educators, he names Hon. Jno. G. McMynn, Prof. Chas. Allen, S. D. Gaylord, of Sheboygan, F. C. Pomeroy and O. M. Baker, of Milwaukee, and G. T. Albee, of Kenosha. Prof. Paul Chadbourne, of Williams College, has been elected Chancellor of the State University.

MISS ROSE A. PRUNTY, who has been connected with the Salem High School for the last nine years, has closed her labors as a teacher. Among the lady teachers in Ohio, Miss Prunty occupied the front rank. She still resides in Salem, having become the wife of Dr. Firestone, an eminent physician of that place.—She has been succeeded by Miss Mary A. Southard, of Maine, a lady of long experience in teaching. She is a graduate of the classical course at Oberlin.

M. S. TURBILL has been obliged, owing to failing health, to resign the charge of the public schools of Cumminsville, O. For seventeen years Mr. T. has been a hard-working, successful teacher. We sincerely hope that a few months of relaxation and rest will restore him to usual vigor. Edward N. Clopper, a graduate of Miami University, is his successor at Cumminsville.

GEORGE PEABODY has given \$150,000 for the foundation and maintenance of a museum and professorship of American Archaeology and Ethnology in connection with Harvard University.

MR. HORACE H. HOLLISTER, a graduate of Hamilton College in 1862, and for the last year a teacher in the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Washington Heights, New York City, has succeeded Mr. Mendenhall as principal of the Salem High School.

JOHN HANSON, late superintendent of the schools of Lima, and Marion, O., has gone into the mercantile business at Independence, Mo.

## BOOK NOTICES.

GUYOT'S GEOGRAPHICAL SERIES—No. I. Primary, or Introduction to the Study of Geography. No. II. Common-School Geography. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1866. Ingham & Bragg, Cleveland, Ohio, Western Depository.

This new series of geographical text-books has been prepared by Prof. Arnold Guyot, assisted by Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of the Oswego Training School. It is a radical innovation upon the common methods of teaching geography, and as such demands consideration and careful examination. We regret that we have not the space this month to enter fully upon such examination, and we excuse our brevity with the promise that it is our purpose to give the series a somewhat extended review in a future number.

The first book, or primary, is intended for children under nine years of age. Its object is not so much to impart geographical knowledge, as "to prepare the way for its successful development in the future." The lessons consist of a series of familiar

descriptions of journeys through those regions of the earth which present the leading types of its land- and water-surface, and those primary facts which constitute the basis of geographical knowledge. These lessons are not intended to be memorized, but are to be read and talked about with a view of developing distinct conceptions of the objects described. In reviewing each lesson the pupil is required to give all important ideas in his own language. At the close of each journey a concise summary is given, which is to be committed carefully to memory by the pupil. These summaries are followed respectively by brief map exercises—the maps used being made after the excellent plan of Guyot's Wall Maps.

The second book, the *Common School Geography*, presents a minute and thorough course of map study with a view of furnishing the pupil with distinct and permanent mental pictures of the characteristic features of the earth's surface. To this end the maps present to the eye not only the contour, but also the configuration of the continents—the great plains, plateaus and mountain ranges being by a skillful system of coloring, pictured to the eye. Two sets of maps are given, the first being designed to aid the pupil in map drawing, which is properly made an aid to map study.

The work is arranged in four distinct parts: Part I consists of Introductory Lessons; Part II, Study of the Continents; Part III, Study of the United States; and Part IV, Mathematical or Astronomical Geography. The study of each continent consists of three steps: (1) the study of the map; (2) the physical character of the continent; and (3) the peoples and countries which it includes. Both the text and the maps are free from unimportant details, the one great end being to develop the grand characteristic features of the earth's surface, and to present those outline facts which are the basis of higher geographical study.

But we despair of being able to give anything like an idea of these works in the space at our command. One thing we can say in a few words; They contain an original and philosophical method of geographical instruction, and bear on every page the evidence of the competency and ability of their authors.

The general plan of using the series is given in a little work by Mrs. Smith entitled "*Geographical Teaching*." No intelligent teacher can rise from the mastery of the details of this plan without acknowledging it to be both philosophical and practical. The method as well as the works which embody it, can never be used by a routine teacher—the one essential condition of success is a live, skillful teacher.

**SCHOOL GOVERNMENT: A Practical Treatise, presenting a thorough Discussion of its Facts, Principles, and their Applications; with Critiques upon Current Theories of Punishment and Schemes of Administration. For the use of Normal Schools, Practical Teachers, and Parents. By FREDERICK S. JEWELL, A.M.** New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1866.

We welcome this volume to a place in the "*Teacher's Library*." The author has evidently aimed at an exhaustive and thorough discussion of the subject considered, and whatever may be the degree of his success in this direction, he has certainly presented many views and suggestions worthy of the attention of teachers. The first five chapters are devoted to the consideration of introductory topics, including the obstacles in the way of good government, the origin of the teacher's authority, and the characteristics of such authority. It is held that the authority of the teacher is derived from that of the parent, and that the delegation or transfer is complete and final. The teacher's authority is, therefore, absolute, imperative, and final. Those difficulties which inhere in the school, or are internal, are minutely considered, and much valuable instruction incidentally presented.

The main subject is discussed under the two general heads of order and discipline, the former being subdivided into arrangement and management, and the latter into requirement, judgment, and enforcement or correction. This classification necessi-

tates some repetition, and, for other reasons, is not altogether satisfactory. It, however, provides the necessary frame-work for a full discussion of different systems of government. The chapter on punishment is one of the best in the volume, but we do not wish this statement to be regarded as an indorsement of all the author's views upon this subject. It contains, however, much that we can indorse most heartily.

The discussion is, as a whole, too discursive to satisfy a logical mind, and the style is sometimes stilted and involved. The earnest teacher will, however, find much that is worthy of grateful reception. We thank the author for his well-directed efforts to elevate this department of school work to its true rank and position. We commend his book to parents and teachers.

**THE TEACHER'S INSTITUTE ; or, Familiar Hints to Young Teachers.** By WILLIAM B. FOWLE. New York: Published by A. S. Barnes & Co. 1866.

We took up this book expecting to find something new and valuable. We lay it down wondering why it was published. It contains, it is true, many valuable hints, but it takes some patience to find them, and when found it happens that the best are not new. Nearly every chapter has at least one "familiar hint," to wit, that *the author has published a book on the subject under consideration*, and this "hint" is not unfrequently drawn out into a pretty full description or defence of such book with the assurance that it is superior to all other books of the kind published! We muster up the courage to suggest mildly, that when teachers buy "familiar hints," they do not care to pay for the author's opinions of his own productions. Several of the lectures included in the volume, were prepared more than twenty years ago, and the "hints" they contain are decidedly behind the profession. Among these lectures (and the best by the way) is one on "The Mentor System," which he calls the "only invention of the nineteenth century." He affirms that the system in his hands and in the hands of others, was eminently successful, and surprise is expressed that it has not been generally adopted. We are informed that his book on this subject "is not now to be found," and so are favored with a few extracts. We regret to see the imprint of so excellent a house on so poor a book.

**FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.** By SIMON KERL, A.M., author of a series of English Grammars. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1866.

We look upon all our ordinary primary or introductory grammars as simple temptations to teachers to put children to the study of this branch at too early an age, and, consequently, as educational nuisances. The science of language is not a child's study, and no amount of simplification or abridgment can make it such. It requires a power and subtlety of mental analysis which children do not and ought not to possess. Indeed, the most difficult thing for a child to hold in the mind for the purpose of analysis, is a *thought*, and yet the analysis of language is pre-eminently the analysis of thought. It is true that a child may be early taught to recognize at sight many nouns, pronouns, adjectives, etc., and to repeat *memoriter* the usual rules and definitions, but all this is the mere technical verbiage of the science, and, as all experience shows, is useless to the child. What he needs, at this early age, is *daily* practice in sentence-making and in the critical examination of the manner in which he can express and modify his own thoughts. In other words, synthesis must go before and prepare the way for analysis.

But comparing Mr. Kerl's "First Lessons" with other primary grammars of a similar character, we find it an excellent work. The author, in his preface, recognizes the folly of worrying children for years "in the abstractions of analysis and parsing," and to avoid this has divided the subject into three parts. The first part contains about one-hundred definitions, expressed in concise and simple language; the second

contains all the important inflections of the language; and the third is devoted to syntax with numerous exercises to teach the pupil how to avoid common errors. If the course of instruction here mapped out, is not designed for children, we can give the author credit for a high degree of success in simplification.

**THE FIFTH READER**, Containing an Introduction on the General Principles of Elocution; with a Thorough Method of Analysis, intended to develop the Pupil's Appreciation of the Thought and Emotion; and a Critical Phonic Analysis of English Words. Designed for the Use of Normal and High Schools, and the Highest Classes in Common Schools. By RICHARD EDWARDS, Principal of the Illinois State Normal University. Chicago: Geo. & C. W. Sherwood. 1866.

The author tells us in his preface that the single design of this reader is "to teach young persons to appreciate and read good English"—"to read understandingly and effectively." To attain this end it is assumed that the pupil must master the thought and emotion contained in every selection that he attempts to read. This we accept as the true aim and the true central idea of a school reader. To read understandingly and effectively, the pupil must understand and appreciate the thought and emotion of the passage. True reading, in other words, has its source in the centre of the thought and emotion of what is read, and, hence, the young must be taught to read with the *understanding* as well as with the voice—to read the *thought* and not merely articulate the words.

This end the author has sought to accomplish by beginning with the general scope of the selections and the meaning of the words, phrases, clauses and sentences contained therein, and ending with the emphases, inflections, quality of voice, etc., required to express the *ascertained* thought and emotion. This method is illustrated by a full analysis of six pieces, representing different classes of composition. A careful study of these suggestive analyses would be of great value to teachers.

The introduction contains an admirable series of lessons—teachable lessons—in Phonic Analysis, and a chapter containing the fundamental principles of vocal utterance, with concise and simple directions.

The selections have been made with good judgment, and are marked by a high degree of literary excellence. We are pleased to find so large a number of new pieces which possess superior merit as a means of teaching reading. The biographical and historical notes appended, present in a small compass much information of great value. In short, a careful examination of this work discloses a high degree of excellence in all the essential features of a good reader. If the remaining books of the "Analytical Series" do not fall below this, it must take a high rank.

**BULLIONS'S LATIN GRAMMAR**. Revised by CHARLES D. MORRIS. New York: Sheldon & Co.

This work, although purporting to be a revision of Bullions's Latin Grammar, is essentially a new work. In typographical execution it surpasses its popular and excellent competitor, Harkness's Latin Grammar. The latter work made a great advance upon previous Latin Grammars by using heavy-faced type to indicate those syllables of words that do not belong to the root. This plan has also been adopted by Morris, but he has judiciously extended the use of distinctive type to the rules and notes in syntax. The treatment of the Subjunctive Mood in both is excellent, but that in Morris's is slightly better. The merits of both works are great, but, although I use Harkness's, I rather incline to the idea that so far as these two works are concerned, the superiority is with Morris's. For teachers who use the English method of pronouncing Latin, they are both inferior to Andrews and Stoddard's in orthoepical aids, because in neither is there either division of syllables or accent marks in the paradigms.

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AN EDUCATIONAL REMINISCENCE.—*Concluded.*

BY T. W. H.

## EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

When importuned for recommendations, or bored by requests to be "a little easy" with some ill-prepared candidate for pedagogical honors, I have often thought of the "Base-Line" school district. It was "very backward." Why? Incompetent "make-believes," *protiges*, foster-children of indulgent boards of school examiners, had kept it so. It would never have found the line of march which progress takes, if a thorough, enthusiastic teacher had not set it in motion in the right direction. I know it may seem hard-hearted to refuse a certificate or recommendation to one struggling with poverty, but I have never yet seen any treatise on morality which permitted indulgences for the sin of lying. If a candidate is *not* qualified to teach the branches required by statute, it is an unmitigated falsehood to certify that he *is*—and to recommend him as "worthy the consideration of boards of education," a barefaced attempt to swindle the community. It makes no difference whether the one asking or receiving such recommendation be rich or poor. The educational interests of the State must not be jeopardized to further the interests or add to the comforts of any one class. The poor should ever be

treated with extreme kindness and consideration; those struggling for a higher intellectual and a nobler spiritual life should be aided and encouraged in every honorable manner; but Providence requires no sacrifice of integrity to help on its work. True charity never winks at falsehood. Tact, experience, qualifications being equal, none can be blamed for preferring a needy applicant. One may go farther than that even, in the case of inexperienced holders of certificates—but to prefer one simply because he is in need of employment or encouragement, is very questionable morality. Still, I do not think there is a board of examiners in our State, whose members are not importuned, again and again, to forfeit their self-respect in this manner—and I know one man, if not more, who has never been known to cast a vote against any applicant; he is so good-natured.

Our facilities for obtaining an education are now so great, that there is no plausible excuse for lack of scholarship when these facilities are not abused. There is, however, a morbid anxiety exhibited by some teachers to advance their pupils into the higher before they are thoroughly acquainted with the common branches of an English education. The consequence of this wrong-headed course is, that candidates able to pass fair examinations in algebra fail in their attempts to explain some of the simplest principles in arithmetic, and those *au fait* in descriptive astronomy can not locate a half dozen of the largest cities on the globe, and are unable to describe the route by water from Cincinnati to Liverpool. An intelligent member of the board of education of one of our principal cities informed me that their county board of examiners rarely granted anything better than third-rate certificates to the graduates of their high school. An occasional thorough review of the common branches, viewing them in the light of higher, more abstract knowledge, would not only remedy this evil, but tend to give a practical character to what are now purely disciplinary studies. County examiners should require from applicants of this character even higher qualifications than from those not favored with their advantages and opportunities—always remembering that the *average* quality of every product never exceeds the *minimum* quality demanded. If we want thorough teachers we must ask for them. If we do that we shall get them; not otherwise. If the “professors” in some of our seminaries,

high schools and colleges can not make teachers out of the material furnished them, others may be found who can.

I have not so much professional pride as to demand that all school examiners shall be practical teachers. There are several lawyers, doctors and clergymen of my acquaintance, men of enlightened views, honest, intelligent, who have interested themselves for years in our public schools, and whose judgment of the qualifications of teachers is worthy of all consideration. They are doing good work in county boards, and I honor them for it. They know that trustees of public interests should not prostitute them to base, sordid purposes, and act accordingly. We can not afford to lose their aid or influence. But I do object to the appointment of lawyers in the "pin-feather" stage of existence, and of professional politicians who care for self only, to sit in judgment on me and my co-workers. No other profession except ours is insulted and outraged in this manner. Nine-tenths of the "Base-Line" districts are "very backward," so that "almost any one can teach them," because their destinies are in the hands of such conceited, incapable nobodies as these. In certain localities, the hue and cry which is raised whenever rigid examinations are attempted, leads to their appointment. In one instance, a probate judge, to quiet an opposition to his re-nomination, was induced to beg, as a personal favor, that an appointee of sterling integrity would resign that he might please the people by appointing one whose conscience was more elastic than his. In striking contrast with this is the conduct of another, who, on the resignation of an entire board because they were not sustained by the community generally in raising the standard of qualifications, reappointed them, with the assurance that they should have the countenance and support of his office at least.

It is not probable that more than one in a hundred of those now engaged in teaching intend to make it a permanent employment. I can not blame them for it: teaching, especially in country districts, does not offer sufficient pecuniary inducements to lead one to devote the energies of a lifetime to it. There is no reason, however, why any one should be excused from a thorough preparation for even a *temporar* employment. None do so in the arts of handicraft. You never hear a blacksmith, or one who claims to be such, attempting to apologize for a bungling piece of

work with the plea that he does not intend to follow the business any great length of time. Applicants for teachers' certificates do so constantly. Those preparing for other professions, and in need of a little ready money, complain when questioned sharply on theory and practice. They "do not intend to teach long;" they "have no time to study new methods;" they "are anxious to finish their professional studies as quickly as possible, and have no money to spend for educational works"—all *prima facie* evidences of incompetency, and very good reasons why they should be refused certificates. If they do not know anything about the *professional* part of our business, and do not want to, let them give way to such as do. If they really want to swindle the community, let them do it in some other manner than at the expense of the heads and hearts of the rising generation. The public good demands that they "clear the track." They never will do any good as missionaries to the many "Base-Lines" of our State.

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## ON THE PROPER PLACE OF ALGEBRA IN AN ELEMENTARY COURSE.

BY T. E. SULIOT.

Although I was not at liberty to attend the Teachers' Association last July, having to serve out the rest of my time on the Earlham tread-mill, I crave permission to make a few remarks on some of the points that were then discussed. I shall, to be sure, be compelled to repeat the substance of my former expressions of sentiments in this, perhaps, my last profession of faith. Still, seeing that these questions are yet unsettled, and have acquired a new freshness of interest from the light shed upon them by the various speakers, a calm review of the matter by an outsider may help some of our younger brethren and sisters to form an opinion of their own on the subject.

I. As to the propriety of substituting algebra for higher arithmetic in the upper classes of our graded schools. At the outset, I must once more protest against the supposed necessity of teaching any part of arithmetic, even the elementary processes, me-



chanically, instead of showing that they are all founded on common sense. Such opinions, when emitted at these anniversaries by men so deservedly looked up to by the younger teachers, may have an injurious tendency. We are, all of us, too prone already to teach mechanically, without such sanction from high places.

There seems to be no reason whatever why any young scholar should not be led to find for himself, by working on objects or their representatives, all the facts of addition and subtraction, on to the multiplication table, which he should not learn by rote, but construct for himself from the results of his experiments and discoveries in combining objects (beans, counters, etc.) in two's, three's, etc.

I will refrain from bringing forward, on the present occasion, what J. H. would probably call my "hobby," viz., that our elementary text-books should contain only well graduated groups of examples which the pupil should solve by an analytical or natural process, as in a course of mental arithmetic, and finally deduce by inductive reasoning a rule as the expression of the process followed in the solutions.

May I be, at least, allowed to remark that our text-books do err in not confining themselves to the essentials of the subject. They contain much irrelevant matter, such as the extraction of roots, which can best be treated algebraically, and the application of which properly belongs to geometry. Least of all, should they be encumbered with mechanical rules or recipes for finding areas and volumes.

I would not go so far as to say, that as soon as the scholar understands the principles of fractions and their applications, he should be put to algebra. I would rather wait till he had mastered that elegant section of arithmetic, called percentage, of which the so-called rules of interest, insurance, profit and loss, partnership, etc., are only obvious applications. But in handling this portion of the subject, we should remember that the great object of an elementary course is not to teach the most compendious methods of working out sums; this may be left for future discovery by the learner himself when he is fitting himself for the counting-house or accountant's office. The important point now is to put him in the way of finding for himself the fundamental principle or law of percentage, viz., that since one per cent. is

one-hundredth of the number, the finding of that one per cent. should in every case be made the starting point, from which, by division or multiplication, the sub-multiple or multiples of one per cent. can be derived.

As there is not one question of proportion that can not be solved analytically, and as the laws of proportion are best demonstrated by using algebraic symbols, I would postpone the rule of three until the learner has gone as far as simple equations in elementary algebra.

Until a book of arithmetic is compiled according to my peculiar notion or "hobby," without rules, but with a variety of model solutions at the heads of each group of questions, I would be well satisfied with Felter's Analysis, which, as an instrument for developing the analytical and reasoning powers of the learner, is far ahead of our common text-books. I only wish we had an elementary algebra on the same principle. If I were trying to make up such a book, I would not run the risk of repelling the pupil, at the very outset, by a formidable array of dry definitions, for most of which he will have, at first, no manner of use. I would introduce them just as they are needed and can be understood, therefore appreciated and therefore remembered. In the first course, I would eschew all complicated questions in the elementary processes—all *isolated* negative quantities which must be perfectly unintelligible. I would certainly omit the "theorems," those stumbling-blocks and bug-bears of the young algebraist: I mean those that treat of the nature of negative exponents and of the exponent 0. The only theorems I would retain, because he can easily test their truth by a simple operation, are those relating to the product of  $a + b$  by  $a + b$  and of  $a - b$  by  $a - b$ . Also, as a matter of fact, not of general reasoning, I would show them by a number of examples, that  $a^m - b^m$  is always divisible by  $a - b$ . I would hasten on to the subject of simple equations, so as to enable the learner, as soon as possible, to solve real questions, and thus to test by his own experience the power of this new instrument of computation.

The laws of proportion and their natural deduction, the rule of three, would bring us back to arithmetic; next would follow involution and evolution, equations of the second degree, etc.

In the second course of algebra, more complicated questions

may be given by way of review, and when equations are again reached, generalization or algebra proper should be made perfectly familiar, by each problem being solved in a general form as soon as a particular or numerical solution has been obtained.

At this stage of the course, when, by patient drilling, the scholar feels at home in true algebraical notation by general symbols, and can readily handle general formulas, the various processes of arithmetic should be illustrated algebraically, and the common rules of interest, discount, annuities, etc., should be represented by formulas.

From this time to the end of the course, algebra and higher arithmetic should go hand in hand, and whenever it is practicable, should illustrate each other. The scholar should be trained to give arithmetical and algebraical solutions of such questions as are susceptible of both.

For that combination of algebra and arithmetic, I know no better book than Palmer's *Elements of Algebra and Higher Arithmetic*.

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## ABOUT TEACHING YOUNG PUPILS TO READ.

BY B. E.

There is what may be called the mechanical execution of reading. It consists in pronouncing the words of a printed page in succession as they pass under the eye. It is needful that the pupil be able to do this readily and correctly. To secure such ability, his eye and his vocal organs must be trained, especially his eye. Not that the eye is more important to the reader than the vocal organs, but in general it needs more special attention from the primary teacher. The pupil needs to be able to see a whole word at once, without being compelled to analyze it, or resolve it into its letters. Any person may learn the advantage of this by a short experiment in reading with light enough to discern the general forms of words, but not enough to see letters distinctly. The pupil never reads well until he can call words at first sight; and yet this mechanical operation is but a small part of true reading. Many a teacher, indeed, seems satisfied if his

pupil merely calls off the words of his reading-lesson correctly. Such a teacher is unworthy of his calling.

It must not be forgotten that the child learns by imitating others. Before he makes his appearance in the school-room, he has learned the language, the tones, the inflections of anger, delight, pain, pleasure, surprise, demand, entreaty, yes, of human passions in general; and he has learned them from imitation—from the lips of other people. He has done as they did. This process does not stop when he becomes a pupil in the school. Hence it is plain that the teacher must himself be a good reader. He must be able to do the thing that the child is to do; yet this is a point in which many teachers do not understand their duty. Indeed, we may go farther back, and impeach the judgment of examiners often. A candidate for a certificate may answer correctly any number of questions in rhetoric and about reading, and yet be a poor reader. If his qualifications in this department are to be tested, let him read audibly before the examiners. There can be no substitute for this.

To proceed: The pupil must be taught to throw his own thought and feeling into his reading lesson. This can be done in most cases with little trouble. Let the teacher say to him: "John, I want you to read this sentence just as if you were telling James or me what it says. I want you to read this question just as if you expected me to answer it. I want you to read the whole lesson just as if you made it up, and were in earnest, and meant it all." Accompany this with exemplification, showing the pupil just what is meant, and he will understand and profit by the instruction. No mere instruction without the example to imitate can be expected to produce a good result, for it does not awaken his imitative powers. The example without the instruction is not enough, for the pupil needs to know why he is desired to read as he is told. Or, it were better to say, he must be furnished with a criterion which he can carry in his own bosom, and which will teach him how to read. When he learns that he is to read every thing *just as if he himself were speaking it in earnest*, he has the rule within him. For want of this rule, men often read the most earnest things, and even speak the most earnest things to others, without effect. By the aid of this rule, other men often move their auditors with the utterances of bald fiction.

If the writer may judge from experience and observation as a director, a teacher, a superintendent, and an examiner, the thoughts presented in this brief space are important, and yet are often utterly unattended to in the school-room. Indeed, they are in danger of being neglected by reason of their extreme simplicity. Yet any really live man may go into a school where there is neglect of them, and in a few minutes transform the most dry and dull reading exercise into one full of life and interest. The pupils are young, we will suppose. They stand listlessly in line, only one endeavoring to drawl out word after word of a few sentences. So far as interest is concerned, he might as well read backwards. Say to him: "Now, William, you did not read that as if you believed it, or meant it. Just read it off, now, *to us*, as if you meant to say it to us, in this way." Then read it as it should be read, and let William imitate you. The listless gaze of the class gives place to the sparkle of interest, and the whole exercise becomes one of life and animation. Try it.

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## NOTES: ORTHOEPICAL, ORTHOGRAPHICAL, ETYMOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL.—No. 5.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

### 22. *Cotemporary*. Dr. Bentley says:

"*Cotemporary* is a downright barbarism. For the Latins never use *co* for *con*, except before a vowel, as *coequal*, *coeternal*; but before a consonant, they either retain the *n*, as in *contemporary*, *constitution*, or melt it into another letter, as *collection*, *comprehension*, so that the word *cotemporary* is a word of his [Bayle's] own composition, for which the learned world will congratulate him."—*Diss. on Phalaris*.

### Todd says:

"It will not be easy to confute the reasoning of this remark, by which the just rule relating to the formation of our compound words of this class, is given; though many, indeed, affectedly write *cogenial*, *copartment*, and the like, as well as *cotemporary*."

### Campbell says:

"The second canon is: In doubtful cases, regard ought to be had in our de-  
the language.

"For this reason I prefer *contemporary* to *cotemporary*. The general use in words compounded with the inseparable preposition *con*, is to retain the [n] before a consonant, and to expunge it before a vowel or an [h] mute. Thus we say *condiscipline*, *conjuncture*, *concomitant*; but *co-equal*, *co-eternal*, *co-incide*, *co-heir*. I know but one exception, which is *co-partner*.—*Phil. of Rhetoric*, p. 179.

"*Co* ought to be used only when the word with which it is joined begins with a vowel, as in *co-eval*, *co-existent*, *co-incident*, *co-operate*, etc.; *con*, when the word begins with a consonant, as in *contemporary*, *conjuncture*, etc. There is but one exception, which is *co-partner*.—*Live and Learn*.

"His [Disraeli's] pages are frequently defaced with vulgarisms. Of these, *cotemporary* may be taken as an instance, which, to adopt the snarl of Dr. Bentley, 'is a word of his own coposition, on which the learned world will congratulate him.'—*Ec. Review*, March, 1852.

"This word is often less properly written *cotemporary*.—*Worcester*.

Mr. G. Washington Moon, who criticised Dean Alford's language in "The Queen's English," and styled his criticisms "The Dean's English," has undertaken the work of criticising the Hon. Geo. P. Marsh's language in his articles in "*The Nation*" on Webster's Revised Dictionary. Moon's first criticism was given in the *Round Table* of October 13th, 1866. He says: "The Hon. George P. Marsh is contributing to the pages of one of your *cotemporaries* a series of articles," etc. A correspondent, who signs himself "S," defends Marsh and criticises Moon. His first letter is in the *The Nation* for October 18th, 1866. He says:

"We earnestly wish that this word *cotemporaries* may not take root. \* \* \* Let us by all means spell the word *contemporary*, and let Mr. Moon cotent himself with cotending for cotemporary. But he has made the word even more remarkable in the meaning than it is in the spelling. He speaks of 'the pages of one of your *cotemporaries*;' soon afterwards he calls the same contemporary a 'periodical.' Now the *noun* contemporary is applied to persons, and not to inanimate things. Queen Victoria and the Emperor Napoleon are *cotemporaries*, but their reigns are *contemporary*. As an adjective, contemporary may possibly be applied to things as well as to persons; as a noun, it should be applied to persons only. If Mr. Moon thinks it necessary to repeat the mention of present time already expressed in the verb '*is contributing*,' he should make contemporary an adjective modifying its noun."

What defense Mr. Moon will make we do not know, unless he shall quote Webster's Dictionary, which says: "For the sake of easier pronunciation, and a more agreeable sound, this word [contemporary] is often changed to COTEMPORARY; and this is the preferable word." This remark is not retained in the last revision of the dictionary.

Dr. Campbell's memory was at fault when he gave co-partner as the only exception to his rule. He should have added *copartnership*, *copatriot* (Everett), *coparcenary*, *coparcener*, *coparceny*, *copartnery*, *co-tenant*, *co-juror*, *cosine*, *cosecant*, *cotangent*, *co-latitude*, *co-regent*, *co-relation*, *co-rival*, *covenant*, *co-worker*, *co-trustee*, *cohere*, *cohabit*, *cohibit*, *cohesive*, and indeed in all cases *co* is used instead of *con* before *h*, whether *h* is mute or not. There are more than two hundred words in which *con* is followed by *t* to eight in which *co* is followed by *t*. This last fact is the one that ought to settle the dispute in favor of *contemporary*.

23. *Male, female.* These words are frequently used in school reports, registers, and catalogues. We hear and read of "*female seminaries*." Is a seminary an animal? Every body knows what is meant by a *female* bird, but nobody thinks that a seminary is *female*. A "*female seminary*" must then mean a seminary for *females*. A female seminary is a school in which females whether of the higher or lower order of animals are taught. Why not say Boys' School, Girls' School, Young Ladies' Seminary, etc. Moon in his third letter to Alford, says:

"I have here, to ask you a question still graver: Why, when speaking of women, do you apply to them the most debasing of all slang expressions? You speak of the highest person in the land, and that person a lady, and your description of her is one that is equally applicable to a dog! Her Majesty is — *a female*. I am sure that all who desire your welfare, will join me in hoping that Her Majesty will not see your book."

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## ON MENTAL GEOMETRY.

BY T. C. MENDENHALL.

I have before me a work entitled "*Mental Geometry; or, Generalizations in Geometrical Demonstrations*," by H. H. Holloway, published by Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

About three years since an incident suggested to me the idea of dispensing entirely with visible signs and characters in geometrical demonstration, and its introduction as a mental exercise. I had in my geometry class at that time, a young man who had been totally blind since the age of three years. It became neces-

sary for my pupils to be so exact and precise in their statements and in their reasoning, that while we were following the course of demonstration, assisted by the visible figure, he should be able to form an accurate *conception* of the geometrical magnitude. Of his success, it is sufficient to say that, notwithstanding the seemingly insurmountable obstacle which stood in his way, he rapidly and thoroughly mastered the subject, and stood among the first in his class. He has won and is winning deserved laurels in one of the best institutions in the land, having nearly completed his college course.

I easily accustomed my pupils to the process of giving and following a demonstration without the aid of a diagram, and I became convinced that the exercise was a very useful one. I have continued its use to a greater or less extent since that time. My plan differs from that of the author of the volume mentioned, inasmuch as he avoids entirely the use of letters, etc., to designate the different parts of the magnitude, whereas I have always required the pupil to give a complete verbal construction of the figure; and to prevent the possibility of the demonstration being *committed to memory*, I have frequently required him to use such letters or numbers as I might mention to represent different points in the imaginary diagram. To assure myself that the other pupils in the class have a proper conception of the geometrical magnitude, and are carefully following the course of demonstration, I have been in the habit of stopping pupil No. 1 at some point in his course of reasoning, and require No. 2 or No. 3 to take it up and proceed, which he will be unable to do, if he has not a clear idea of the imaginary diagram. I have been so far successful in this method of instruction, that I have had a class, any member of which could give "with his eyes closed and his hands in his pockets," an accurate demonstration of any proposition in Legendre, and I heartily recommend all teachers of the science to give it a trial.

This method of geometrical demonstration, without the use of visible figures, is by no means new, having been in use centuries ago. The ancients were of opinion that to reason upon geometrical magnitude required abilities of the very highest order; hence the reply of one, when asked as to the probable occupation of the Deity, "He geometrizes continually." Mental arithmetic



is regarded, and justly, as an efficient aid in the formation of habits of attention and power of analysis in the young. author of this work seems to think that mental geometry may serve a like purpose.

I think geometry may be taught to children, but it can only be taught, or at least it can *best* be taught, by means of visible or tangible representations. In a former communication, I alluded to the superiority of the senses of touch and sight as a means of acquiring ideas, and I believe we may take advantage of this in what we call the abstract sciences as well as in the applied. With more advanced students, I conceive that Mr. Holloway's method might be of great service. His demonstrations are more Euclidian (?) than many of the modern geometricians. But after all, is not the modern method the best, for the very reason which is frequently used as an argument against it, namely, that by it the subject is mastered with *much less mental labor* than by the more purely geometrical method? Does it not become us as teachers of and writers upon science to "smooth the rugged path," that it may be traveled at a livelier pace than formerly, since it is now so much *longer* than in days of yore?

The history of learning affords, perhaps, no parallel to the rapid strides which the natural sciences have taken within the last twenty or thirty years. A law has been discovered as beautiful and almost, indeed I will say *quite*, as important and fruitful in its applications as Newton's law of gravitation; yet comparatively few know of its existence, and probably it is not presuming too much to say, that even its name would be "more than Greek" to three-fourths of the teachers of the State of Ohio. These and a host of other things to learn are perseveringly knocking at the doors of our institutions of learning, and asking admission to the course prescribed for a liberal education. While we may agree with the ancients in thinking that there is no study so noble as that of geometry, yet is it not most useful and most noble as a round in the ladder upon which we must place our feet, in order to reach the rich fruit which is hanging above us, all ripe for the picking?

I would not be understood as desiring to abridge the *amount* of geometry taught in our schools: I would double it, treble it, or even quadruple it; but I only ask that it be taught in the best, which certainly is the quickest, way.

In Mr. Holloway's "Mental Geometry" will be found many things which will be welcome to all lovers of the science, and useful to all teachers. He has given us many improved demonstrations; a collection of very interesting problems in spherics; the correct solution of the problem of the volume of a pyramid by the method of indivisibles, which is blundered at in Davies and Peck's Mathematical Dictionary; a simple expression for the volume of a spherical segment, which, however, is not as the author seems to think, new; and, finally, a simplicity and neatness of expression which, considering the difficulties to be overcome, are really commendable.

A too common fault in our text-books is this lack of precision in the language employed,—I may call it a *muddiness* in the use of words. This is so often the case in primary text-books, where most generally the language is not adapted to the understanding of the youth of "tender years" for whom it is intended. A few days since I was examining a class of little fellows in ——'s Primary Geography. When I asked the question, as found in the text-book, "Of what use is a river?" a boy very promptly replied, giving the answer as in the book, "It is useful to convey articles of commerce from point to point." I asked him if he could think of any *other* use for a river. He thought a moment, then, brightened with the idea, replied: "Yes, sir! it is used to carry goods from one town to another."

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#### LETTER FROM OL OGY.

MR. EDITOR: The article "Among the Institutes" in your November number, if I may judge from a letter before me, has excited fiery indignation in the bosom of at least one of the classes enumerated by the writer as not attending teachers' institutes—the class which he speaks of as teaching for pin money, and anxiously looking forward to escape from thralldom through the natural 'gap provided for such—marriage. The best advice I can give brother Zed, is to keep out of the way of "the women folks" for a time. I sincerely trust he is already married. If not, his matrimonial chances, it strikes me, are rather slender.

But I have an infantile crow to pick with Mr. Zed myself. I see he classes me among the opposers of institutes. Now, though I am an old fogy, and not disposed to celerity of movement, it does not at all follow that I believe in standing stock still.

I believe with another of your correspondents, that in order to climb the highest steep of the profession, one must be a born teacher—just as the poet or general is born. But there is not a sufficient supply of this born teaching genius to go round. If none but Dr. Arnolds are to attempt “to form the common mind,” I very much fear the greater number of our school-houses would remain vacant. There have not been many Homers or Shakespeares in the world; but is that any reason the Miltons, Thomsons, Woodsworths, Tennysons, Longfellows and Whittiers should tune no lay to instruct and delight mankind? There is no profession or vocation that is not under the necessity of using a good deal of mediocre material, and the teacher’s profession is no exception to the rule.

I have often heard it argued against institutes and normal schools by older fogies than myself, that as teachers must be born such, it is perfectly useless to attempt to make them by the aid of a machine. I grant there are too many of those knotty sticks of timber attempting to ingraft themselves into the profession, out of which there is no more possibility of making a teacher than there is of making a silk purse out of a sow’s ear. It is the experience of every examiner that dozens upon dozens of young men and young women come before him for certificates to teach, who never could, without the express intervention of a miracle, become even tolerable school-keepers. But shall we on this account sit idly by, in a sort of dumb despair, and do nothing? Not so. I care not how great one’s natural abilities for teaching may be, culture will give him ten-fold more power. He may be a blind Samson, feeling around for years for the methods which an experienced instructor could place in his hands within an hour. And where one’s natural powers are but mediocre, culture will develop the germ, and make out of it, if not a California pine, at least a tall and very respectable sapling.

Then, again, these impracticable “chunks,” out of which nothing can be made, are found in all our training schools—they are very abundant in the military school at West Point and in

the naval academy—and the question arises what plan shall we hit upon to keep them out of our normal school? (You may say, “Better wait till you have caught your rabbit, before you discuss the method of cooking him!” but I think we may regard ourselves so close upon the normal school that we may consider it caught.)

I propose, then, that the State shall not be put to the expense of trying to work up this useless timber. “But,” it may be asked, “how are we to avoid it?” I will give you my plan: Let no one be admitted into the school, whose tuition shall come from the State, unless recommended by the county examiners, who shall specifically set forth the grounds on which their recommendation is made. This power should also be extended to the county superintendents, when we come to have them, which, I think, is not far in the future. Or the responsibility might be joint, and a recommendation be required from both examiners and superintendent. But, it may be urged, this would greatly restrict the number in attendance on the school. To which I would reply, better have a small school of good material than a large school of poor material. The number of dunces in a school gives it no strength. A State normal school should send forth no failures to mock and afflict an expectant community, so long and so severely tried with that kind of teachers.

Yours, hopefully,

OLD FOGY.

*Sleepy Hollow, Nov., 1866.*

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## EDUCATIONAL WANTS OF MISSOURI.

BY J. M.

1. An appreciation of the importance of good schools. My observations have been limited to the eastern part of the State, where this condition of the public mind is very general. I have no reason to think it is less so in other parts. But many of the native Missourians seem to be waking up to the importance of better educational facilities, and an eastern population is rapidly coming in to help mould public opinion, and give it an impulse in the right direction.

2. Good school-houses. Many towns are destitute of a school house of any kind. Such is the case in Ironton, the county seat of Iron county, with a population of 1,000, and in Memphis, the county-seat of Scotland county, with a population of 2,000; and it is difficult—yea, impossible—to obtain suitable school-rooms in those places at present. On the other hand, in towns of much less size there are respectable school-houses, though the latter are, I think, exceptional cases, the buildings being generally far from respectable. During three days' travel through the north-eastern part of the State, I recognized but one country school-house; and that was surrounded by a play-ground co-extensive with the beautiful prairie on which it was situated.

3. Good teachers. During the war many teachers enlisted in the rebel army, and, consequently, are now unable to take the oath required of teachers, viz., that they have never, by word or deed, given encouragement to the rebellion. I would not like to say, however, that this accounts for a want of *good* teachers. No doubt the war drew off many that were not very much needed in the profession. From all that I have been able to learn of the schools of the State, I doubt whether many of them are well calculated to produce an intelligent and skillful class of teachers. I hear of male teachers in towns receiving from \$40 to \$80 per month, so long as the public money lasts. In private schools pupils are charged from \$5 to \$10 per term of three months.

4. A sufficient school fund. It suffered materially from the rebel-governor Claib. Jackson's operations, but the present excellent school-law, passed last winter, will go far towards supplying the deficiency. It provides that one-fourth of the State revenue shall be appropriated to the support of schools, besides the proceeds of swamp lands, fines, etc.; also, that if these various sources of revenue shall fail to support a school four months, the (township) board of education *shall* report the deficiency to the proper county officer, who shall cause the required amount to be collected the same as other taxes. Four months of free school are thus secured, if school officers do their duty. The law further provides, that any town may vote a tax to keep a school in operation so long as they choose. If good teachers will come to this State with a missionary spirit, they will find a wide field of use-

fulness, and will, I think, sooner or later, receive a liberal compensation for their services.

A few words concerning the freedmen. Whenever thirty, between the ages of five and twenty-one, can be found in one sub-district, they are entitled by law to a school separate from the white youth. If that number can not be found, the law makes no provision for them. Teaching the white and colored children together would not be tolerated. It would be as shocking to the sensibilities of the superior race, as for white and black to eat at the same table. Some even refuse to patronize a teacher who is guilty of teaching a colored school. Need any thing be added to prove that we need teachers with a missionary spirit?

UNION, Franklin Co., Mo., Oct. 20, 1866.

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### SIX QUESTIONS.

EAST CLEVELAND, O., Oct. 20, 1866.

EDITOR ED. MONTHLY: Will you please answer the following inquiries in your journal?

1. Which is correct in numbering pupils in a class, to say one, two, three, etc., or first, second, third, etc.?

2. Should pupils be taught to read the numbering of lessons and chapters, as, Lesson 2, Chapter XIV, etc., Lesson *Two*, Chapter *Fourteen*, or Lesson *Second*, Chapter *Fourteenth*?

3. Should the usual form of dates, as Oct. 10, 1866, be read Oct. *Ten*, or Oct. *Tenth*?

4. Should the common citation of texts, as Heb. xii: 21, be read Heb. *twelve*, *twenty-one*, or Heb. *twelfth*, *twenty-first*?

5. Should the designation of kings, etc., as Charles XII, be read Charles *Twelve*, or Charles *Twelfth*?

6. In the last four queries, what good and sufficient reason can be given for reading the numerals differently from the printed form?

INQUIRER.

[In numbering pupils, verses, pages, chapters, or what not, the speaker or writer may use either ordinal or cardinal numbers; but the *reader* should follow the written or printed form. The Arabic and Roman numerals alike represent cardinal numbers. 5 and V are each to be read *five*; 5th and Vth, *fifth*. Roman numerals used in the designation of kings, may form an exception. What says W. D. H.?—ED. MONTHLY.]

## School Officers' Department.

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*The articles included in this Department have special interest to school officers. Those not otherwise credited, are prepared by the editor. Brief communications from school officers and others interested in this feature of the MONTHLY, are solicited.*

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ALL questions pertaining to the school law and its administration, should be addressed to the School Commissioner, who will give them due consideration. Our necessary correspondence is a sufficiently heavy tax on our time. Besides, our opinion or advice, if given, would be unofficial and comparatively weightless. Whenever legal questions of sufficient importance may arise, the Commissioner will doubtless favor the readers of the MONTHLY with official opinions and instructions.

A SCHOOL OFFICER asks for information on the subject of fines and licenses. We have little to impart. By the laws of the State, the money arising from various fines and licenses is set apart for school purposes. What this fund would amount to were none of it illegally applied to other purposes, we can not now state. It would doubtless constitute no inconsiderable source of school revenue. We are confident that a thorough investigation of the subject would disclose the fact that the schools are losing annually many thousands of dollars. The publication of the titles of all the laws imposing these fines and licenses, with an abstract of their provisions, would prove of great assistance to school officers.

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### TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Boards of examiners in this State are very generally issuing *four* classes or grades of certificates, thus indicating the comparative qualifications of the teachers to whom they are granted. The highest grade of certificate is made valid for twenty-four months; the next highest for eighteen months; the next for twelve months; and the lowest (which indicates very limited qualifications) for only six months. Local directors should remember this fact in employing teachers. They should not only ascertain that the teacher whom they propose to employ, has a certificate, but they should determine the *grade* of such certificate; and, other things being equal, preference should always be given to a teacher holding a certificate of the higher grade. Teachers whose superior scholarship and attainments entitle them to a first-class certificate, should, as a general rule, receive considerably higher wages than those whose defective and imperfect qualifications are indicated by a six-month certificate. Few examiners would be willing to take oath that they believe those to whom they grant certificates valid for only six months, are qualified to teach the several branches

named therein. The truth is, a six-month certificate indicates prospective rather than present attainments. The examiners entertain the hope that the holder may, by industry and application, meet the requirement of the law. Here and there a successful and competent teacher may be found holding a certificate of this low grade; but, clearly, local directors should be slow to accept such a certificate as satisfactory evidence of the holder's teaching ability. Let every teacher feel that the possession of a certificate of a high grade is a worthy recommendation.

There is one other matter to which we wish to call attention. The law now requires that a knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching shall be one of the essential qualifications of a teacher. The law has been in force over two years, and, consequently, no certificate which omits this item, is now valid. The examiners must examine into and certify to the teacher's professional knowledge. Let excellence here receive its due attention and reward.

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### TEACHERS' REPORTS.

The law makes it the duty of teachers to file with the township clerk at the close of each term of school, "a full and complete report," and until such report has been duly certified and filed, it is unlawful for the clerk to draw an order to pay the teacher for his services. This provision also applies to districts which are not under the general school law. It is general in its application, and is designed to place in the hands of the proper officer a full and complete report of every public school taught in the State.

The failure to execute this statutory provision faithfully, is the prime source of the difficulty experienced in this State in the collection of school statistics. If the teachers' reports are incomplete or incorrect, the clerk of the board, whatever may be his competency, must fail in his attempt to prepare complete and accurate returns to the auditor. We would, therefore, strongly urge upon clerks the importance of examining carefully each teacher's report before filing the same. This duty is as important as it is easy. It should be attended to at the right time.

We would also urge upon teachers the duty of keeping an accurate daily record of the attendance of their pupils. If this duty is neglected, or carelessly attended to, it is impossible to meet the requirement of the law respecting the preparation of the term report. Facts, not guesses, are required, and that the record may be one of facts, it must be attended to daily. The teacher should be provided with a properly ruled register, and the presence or absence of each pupil should be carefully noted therein. No teacher is excusable for the neglect of this duty; it is an essential item of each day's business.

It occurs to us that it would be a good idea for examiners to make the ability to prepare properly a term report one of the essential requisites for a certificate. We fear that many teachers are licensed who can not even make out from a daily record of a school, the average number of pupils in daily attendance.



## Editorial Department.

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THE premium of Webster's New Dictionary offered for the largest list of subscribers raised in the months of July and August, has been awarded to S. J. Kirkwood, Tiffin; September and October, to W. K. Gooderl, Washington, Guernsey county.

In our last issue the same premium was offered for the largest number of subscribers secured in the months of November and December. To the person sending us the second largest list in these months, we will present a copy of Gould Brown's Grammar of English Grammars—retail price, \$5.

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### THE MONTHLY FOR 1867.

Another volume of the MONTHLY closes with this number, and we have the pleasure of stating that its financial success has fully met the moderate expectations with which it was begun. Our subscription list has steadily increased until, unable to supply the back numbers ordered, we are obliged to have all new subscriptions begin with the next volume. We most heartily thank all who have aided us in the accomplishment of this result. We trust the MONTHLY has more than merited the support it has received.

Our arrangements for the next year are about completed, and will, we trust, prove highly satisfactory to all our patrons and friends. The January number will be printed from new type, that used for contributions being one size smaller than the type previously used for this purpose. This will increase the amount of contributed matter, and, at the same time, leave the type sufficiently large. The cover will be made still more attractive, and its first page will present a table of the contents. The paper used will be the first quality of book paper. In short, it is our aim to make the mechanical appearance of the MONTHLY all that can reasonably be desired.

The closing volume contains forty-two more pages than our "contract" required—an increase in size of over ten per cent. We shall enlarge the next volume as much as the increase in our circulation may justify.

We have engaged several of the ablest and most popular writers in the profession to contribute regularly to our pages. Among these are our well-known contributors T. W. HARVEY, JOHN HANCOCK, SIDNEY A. NORTON, W. D. HENKLE and T. E. SULIST. Hon. E. D. MANSFIELD, one of the ablest essayists in the country, has agreed to write several articles. We also hope to secure contributions from several eminent writers who reside in other States, and from a score or more of the able and experienced educators of Ohio. Our corps of writers for 1867 will, at least, fully maintain the high reputation which the MONTHLY has gained, for its excellent contributed articles.

It does not become us to speak of the character of the Editorial Department of the MONTHLY; but we may add that no other educational journal published in this country, contains evidence of more editorial attention. In the number of its editorials and the practical and vital character of the topics discussed, the next volume will not be inferior to any of its predecessors. The School Officers' Department will continue to receive special attention.

The next volume will, in brief, be the result of an earnest effort to provide the profession in Ohio with a first class organ. It is our intention that the MONTHLY shall keep pace with its progress, and worthily represent its spirit and culture. In this undertaking we shall continue to rely on the friends of the cause for assistance. We confidently go forward.

### MASSACHUSETTS AND SOUTH CAROLINA.

These two States may be taken as fair representatives of the two systems of civilization which are based respectively on the equality of man and the subordination of races,—whose symbols have been the school-house and the slave-shamble; whose watchwords are "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," and "Slavery, Subordination and Oligarchy." They started on these two different and diverging lines of policy, and have pursued the same with about equal zeal and devotion. How far are they now apart? What are the practical results of the two systems? Since South Carolina has been suddenly checked in her career and may soon wholly abandon her favorite policy, these inquiries possess very great interest.

For their answer let us turn to the census of 1860:

	MASSACHUSETTS.	SOUTH CAROLINA.
Area in square miles.....	7,800	30,213
Population in 1866.....	1,231,066	703,708
Expended in railroads.....	\$61,000,000	\$22,400,000
Children attending school between 5 and 20 years of age.....	211,388	16,841
Amount expended for public schools per annum.	\$1,519,197	\$74,400
Number of academies.....	754	202
Number of daily papers.....	17	2
Circulation of do. ....	169,600	1,600
Number of tri-weekly and semi-weekly papers.	17	4
Circulation do.....	43,100	6,200
Number of weekly papers.....	145	35
Circulation do.....	778,680	41,090
No. of semi-monthly and monthly periodicals..	30	3
Circulation do.....	353,100	4,400
Number of quarterlies.....	6	1
Circulation do.....	21,500	500
Total number of periodicals and papers.....	215	45
Whole circulation.....	1,366,180	53,870
Ratio of same to population .....	over 1 to each person.	less than 1 to 13.

These significant contrasts may be verified by referring to Appleton's Cyclopædia. How plainly they show how the desolated South may be regenerated, and her waste places changed to fruitful fields. The great agent of reconstruction is the school-house. The "irrepressible conflict" will continue until the negro is handed over to the schoolmaster. He alone can conquer a lasting and blessed peace.

## METHODS OF CONDUCTING RECITATIONS.

Why should the teacher not confine himself to the printed questions of the author?

What do you understand by "leading questions" and why are they objectionable?

Why should questions that can be answered by yes or no be avoided? What are some of the characteristics of a satisfactory answer? Why should partial answers be rejected? Why should every answer be expressed in good language? Why should mumbling be broken up?

What are the advantages and what the disadvantages of conducting recitations by topics? In what studies and with what class of pupils is this method most successful? What do you regard as an abuse of the topic method?—*Questions on the Theory and Practice of Teaching.*

The above questions suggest that there are two distinct methods of conducting recitations, viz: by questions and by topics, called respectively the *catechetic* method and the *topic* method. We propose to consider briefly each of these methods with a view of determining the conditions of its successful use, and its advantages and disadvantages.

1. *The Catechetic Method.* In the successful use of this method the teacher not only aims to test the pupil's knowledge of the subject-matter of the lesson, but also to make such knowledge clearer and more permanent, which, as we have seen,\* is the second object of the recitation. This requires that the questions asked be so arranged that they may unfold the subject logically and methodically, and bring out clearly that which is important and fundamental. The teacher, in preparing himself to conduct a given recitation successfully, must keep these two objects before him. His questions must be carefully studied; they must serve as searching tests, and, at the same time, as aids to the pupil in reducing his knowledge to a system—in separating principles from details.

All questions that suggest the answer or lead the pupil to it, technically called "leading questions," are worthless as tests, and should be carefully avoided. The same is true of questions that can be answered by "yes" or "no." The pupil is, indeed, more likely to answer such questions correctly than incorrectly, and this is true whatever may be his ignorance. The manner in which the question is asked, the suggestive look or "nudge" of a fellow pupil, or some other conscious or unconscious hint, may make correct guessing quite easy. It is scarcely necessary to remark that knowledge guessed out in this way is a very doubtful good—a very uncertain possession. Indeed, we look upon the practice of helping pupils through half-prepared lessons by leading questions and otherwise, as not only useless but pernicious. It deceives the pupil respecting his ignorance, and begets vicious habits of study. The requirements of the recitation must rigidly hold the pupil responsible for whatever knowledge is within his reach; and the fact that he has failed in his efforts to reach the same, must be disclosed before the needed assistance is given.

We are thus led back to the fact that the thorough questioning of a class on a given subject requires, on the part of the teacher, thorough knowledge and careful preparation. His questions must be clear, concise, methodical; must bear the stamp of his own thinking—must be the coinage of his own brain, dropping from the mint bright and hot.

"The asking of questions from the book" is exceedingly objectionable—to

\* See September number.

use the expressive language of Gen. Garfield in his recent talk to the teachers of Trumbull county, it is like the feeding of one's pupils on "cold victuals." The author's questions may be models in form and arrangement, but their slavish use in the recitation degrades the teacher to a mere machine, and his teaching to a mechanical and lifeless routine. The proper function of printed questions is to assist both teacher and pupil in preparing for the recitation—the former in modeling his own questions, and the latter in "proving" or testing his knowledge. A teacher must have sufficient command of good English and a sufficient acquaintance with the subject he teaches, to ask his own questions.

The chief merit of the method of conducting recitations by questions, is its thoroughness. When used by a competent, skillful teacher, it may be made a most searching test of the pupil's preparation.

The weakness of the method is two-fold: It does not cultivate sufficiently the pupil's power of expression; and it fails to necessitate systematic thought and study. The first defect may be overcome, in part, by requiring pupils to give full and complete answers. Most of the answers received in our schools consist of a single word, or of two or more words which do not form a sentence. Catechizing teachers, as a class, use more words in asking questions than their pupils do in giving their answers. Pupils should be taught to answer questions in complete sentences.

The second defect is most marked in classes whose study consists in attaching ready-made answers to the printed questions found in their text-books—in fitting pegs to holes made to order. The real subject under consideration is wholly lost sight of. The studious pupil learns to fit a thousand answers to as many questions concerning his own country without catching one inspiring glimpse of the grand reality which unwittingly he has viewed piecemeal. It is true that the pupil may be driven into the recesses of the subject by questions that fly red-hot from the teacher's own brain, but such results are exceptional. The general fact is, that the method of reciting by questions fails to necessitate the classification and methodical arrangement of knowledge by the pupil. It is not enough that the pupil acquire knowledge classified by others; the work of classifying must be done by himself.

2. *The Topic Method.* What we have said respecting the weakness of the catechetic method will enable us to present in a clear light the advantages of the topic method. It forces the pupil (if his recitations are not *memoriter*) to view the subject considered as a whole; to grasp its essential facts and principles, and arrange all that he has learned around them. In producing the results of his study in the recitation without reliance upon the teacher, he acquires a command of language which it is impossible for him to gain in giving brief answers to specific questions. The fourth object of the recitation, viz: to train the pupil to tell what he knows, the topic method secures better than the method by questions.

But the method requires a clear-headed, thorough teacher to use it with success. In the hands of a superficial teacher it often degenerates into mere talking, the pupil failing entirely to state what is most essential to be known, and giving instead comparatively unimportant details. Such recitations are exceedingly deceptive.

As a general rule, the topic method is better adapted to advanced than to primary pupils, and has a wider application in reviews than in advancing lessons. It can be used most successfully in teaching such branches as history and geography, but may be used in all branches, not even excepting spelling.

In our judgment the most efficient method of conducting recitations is by uniting these two methods. The pupil's lessons may be prepared, and, in the main, recited on the topic plan. His knowledge should, however, be frequently tested by searching questions. Whenever he discloses an imperfect understanding of the subject, the teacher should ply him with questions. With advanced pupils the topic method may be so modified as to require the pupil to give a complete analysis of the topic before he attempts to fill up the outline with details. This is, indeed, worthy of being called a third method.

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### THE SECRET OF SUCCESS.

Two young men start in business at the same time. One is furnished with ample capital, but has no business training; the other has no capital whatever except a good name and a well-trained business capacity. The former soon becomes involved in inextricable difficulties, and ends his business career in bankruptcy; the latter succeeds in all his undertakings, and ere long becomes rich. Why does one fail and the other succeed? Simply because one knows *how* to do business and the other does not.

How often do we see a parallel case in the profession of teaching. A college graduate, the first in his class, fails in the conduct of a school, while his neighbor, a man of far inferior attainments, achieves an eminent success. Why? In nine cases out of ten, because the former, thinking knowledge—the *what* of instruction—all that is necessary for success in teaching, fails in management and in communicating knowledge to others; while the latter, having made *methods*—the *how* of instruction—objects of special study, makes the best possible use of his small capital, adds to it every day, secures the confidence of his patrons, and soon wins an enviable name.

Let no one suppose, however, that the study of methods can ever compensate for shallowness or superficiality. One who desires to take even respectable rank as a teacher, must neglect neither the *what* nor the *how* of instruction, for both are essential for permanent success. A lasting reputation can be secured only by the possession of solid acquirements and the use of enlightened, philosophic methods. In the commercial world there are financial crises, when the weak and short-sighted "go under." In the teacher's profession there are numberless occasions which demand the most liberal culture, the wisest judgment, and the shrewdest tact. As a cautious merchant always forecasts for possible disaster, so should the wise teacher be constantly preparing himself for something more difficult of performance than the duty of the present hour.

## MASS. STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The teachers of the Old Bay State believe in progress. The maxim, "What man has done man can do," does not bound their ambition; on the contrary, they believe that man can do somethings which he has not yet accomplished. Hence, instead of being content to repeat the history of the past, they strive to make new history worthy of the present. Take an illustration: Their predecessors having deprived them of the honor of founding normal schools, they take a step in advance by placing a woman in charge of one of those already established, and paying her the same salary that is paid men occupying similar positions.

We have a still more striking illustration of this spirit in the recent meeting of the State Teachers' Association. Not content to repeat so common an occurrence as the assembling of a few hundred teachers, the officers of the association issued their "call," and, lo! the "Hub" had the coveted opportunity of honoring itself by honoring *thousands* of teachers in convention assembled. Nor does this marvel stand alone. A similar success was reached in 1865, when the number in attendance upon the annual meeting was estimated at 2,500. Massachusetts teachers are likely to stand at the head some time yet! Read what an excellent friend has thoughtfully sent us respecting the recent extraordinary meeting:

Boston, Mass., Oct. 22, 1866.

FRIEND WHITE: Knowing your interest in educational affairs *everywhere*, I take the liberty to write a line from Boston.

The Mass. State Teachers' Association has but just closed its session of 1866. You know it is generally supposed that the younger States have more vitality in their educational bodies than the older. That systems tend to crystallize, and so lose their earlier activity and show of vigor.

Being a new comer at the "Hub," I naturally enough went to the gathering of the teachers of this ancient commonwealth. The largest hall in Boston, except the famous Music Hall, was not large enough. There were certainly not less than 3,000 teachers in council.

John D. Philbrick, the able Supt. of the Boston Public Schools, presided. The City Council and School Committee gave the teachers hearty welcome.

The exercises were of the highest order. A class of young ladies from the public schools gave, under the direction of Prof. Munroe, an illustration of Vocal Gymnastics and Reading, as taught by this accomplished elocutionist in the city schools. I can only say that I wish every teacher in the land could have heard the fine vocalization of this class. It was a complete success.

Prof. Mason, formerly of Cincinnati, illustrated the method of teaching singing in the public schools. It was reproducing the fine effects with children's voices that this gentleman accomplished years ago in Cincinnati.

The Boston Latin school gave a military drill on the Common, which was witnessed by a large crowd.

A class from one of the grammar schools of Boston, gave an exercise in Free Gymnastics, which was enthusiastically received.

Altogether, friend White, this meeting of three thousand Massachusetts teachers was a grand sight. It was a live meeting. The schools of all the larger cities were closed that the teachers might attend. Massachusetts seems determined to hold her pre-eminence in education.

Yours truly,

MOSES T. BROWN.

## EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

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**TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.**—We offer no apology for the amount of space given in this number to the November institutes. On the contrary, we congratulate our readers on the evidence spread before them that the good work is making such encouraging progress. We have never before visited institutes so largely attended and successfully managed as those held the present year. We have been specially pleased with the improved character of the instruction given. Less time has been wasted in attempts to impart scientific, instead of professional, knowledge. To these county institutes should now be added judicial-district normal institutes, and the whole crowned with a good normal school. Now is the time to agitate this subject, and we are glad that so many of the institutes have moved in the matter. Get the petitions ready; the General Assembly will soon be in session.

Institutes are to be held at Cambridge and New Philadelphia during "Holiday week."

**FULTON COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—We are indebted to M. D. L. Buell, of Wauseon, for a full report of this institute, which was held during the five days commencing Oct. 15, 1866. One hundred and twenty earnest teachers were instructed by Col. D. F. De Wolf, of Toledo, who was assisted by Mr. Buell, Rev. G. E. Leonard and Rev. G. W. Walker. Evening lectures were delivered by Col. De Wolf, Rev. S. H. Camp and Mr. Brown, all of Toledo. Resolutions were passed strongly commending institutes as a means of professional improvement, and urging the establishment of normal schools and the creation of the office of county superintendent. The instructors and the MONTHLY each received flattering testimonials of appreciation. A fine list of subscribers gave meaning to the last resolution. Mr. Buell asks: "What county of our age can beat us?" We pause for a reply.

**WAYNE COUNTY (IND.) INSTITUTE.**—The annual session of this institute was held at Richmond, Ind., during the five days commencing, Oct. 29. It was a decided success. The attendance was large, and the professional spirit capital. We heard the statement made that it was the largest county institute ever held in Indiana. We certainly have never instructed a body of teachers more thoroughly out of the ruts, or who evinced a more earnest inquiry for truer methods and higher professional attainments. Old-fogyism, both in politics and education, is decidedly below par in this corner of the celebrated "Burnt District." "Progress" is the watchword, and the columns are moving steadily onward and upward.

The institute was under the supervision of Jesse H. Brown, the efficient school examiner of the county, who, in getting up the institute, was obliged to rely mainly on the receipts to meet expenses. The tuition receipts were increased somewhat by the proceeds of two evening lectures which were delivered in one of the public halls of the city. These lectures were free to the members of the institute; but other persons attending were charged an admission fee of twenty-five cents. Mr. Brown was not disappointed in the result. He has the satisfaction of having conducted one of the finest institutes ever held in the country, and of meeting the expenses of the same almost entirely from the receipts—a result largely due to his zealous, skillful management. George P. Brown, John Cooper, and Miss Brown, assisted in the work of instruction. We trust we may be pardoned if we add that "everything was done up brown."

**CUYAHOGA Co. INSTITUTE.**—*Mr. Editor:* For the information of your readers, I make a minute of the late session of the Cuyahoga County Teachers' Institute. The session was held at Berea, commencing the 4th and closing the 9th of the present month. The number of teachers in attendance was large. A considerable number were students of Baldwin University, the faculty of which institution gave efficient co-operation throughout. The laboring cars were in hands well able to handle them. Prof. A. Schuyler, J. H. Rhodes, and T. W. Harvey, were the principal instructors. The following was the programme of general lectures: Mathematical Geography—A. Schuyler; The Duties, Qualifications and Responsibilities of the Teacher—Wm. S. Wood; School Penalties—B. A. Hinsdale; The Ideal Teacher—J. H. Rhodes; Storms—T. W. Harvey. The following resolution was adopted:

*Resolved,* That we heartily approve the action of the Ohio State Teachers' Association in reference to petitioning the State Legislature for an appropriation for the establishment of a State normal school, and the organization and support of district and county institutes.

It is due to Prof. B. W. Seager to say, that his instruction in music added much to the interest and profit of the institute.

B. A. HINSDALE, Sec'y.

CLEVELAND, Nov. 20, 1866.

**SUMMIT COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The annual session of this institute was held at Akron during the five days commencing Oct. 29th. The exercises were under the direction of I. P. Hole, Sup't of the Akron Schools, and were eminently professional and practical in their character. Mr. Hole was ably assisted by T. W. Harvey, of Painesville, who gave instruction in arithmetic, geography, and the theory and practice of teaching. Evening lectures were given by Pres. H. L. Hitchcock, of Western Reserve College, Hon. Anson Smyth, of Cleveland, Rev. Carlos Smith, of Akron, and Messrs. Hele and Harvey. About one hundred teachers were present. Thirty-three names were added to the MONTHLY's subscription list.

**PORTAGE COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—The annual session of this institute was held at Ravenna the first week in September. When we state that the county examiners were the committee of arrangements, we need not add that the institute was a success. The exercises were under the supervision of the writer, who was efficiently assisted in the work of instruction by Prof. T. E. Sullot, of Kent, I. P. Hole, of Akron, H. D. Smalley, of Randolph, and D. D. Pickett, of Ravenna. Pres. Hitchcock, Rev. E. E. Lamb, and Messrs. Hole and White gave evening lectures. The MONTHLY's readers received re-inforcements, and excellent resolutions favoring, among other things, county supervision and agencies for professional improvement, were passed. We met here several early companions and friends, and revived goodly memories of our boyhood days.

**TRUMBULL COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—This institute which was held during the five days commencing Nov. 12th, was a decided success. One hundred and thirty teachers were in attendance. Instruction was given by Prof. Schuyler, of Berea, J. H. Rhodes, of Cleveland, W. D. Henkle, of Salem, H. U. Johnson, of Orwell, and the writer. The evening lectures were well attended. Gen. Garfield addressed the institute on Thursday afternoon in a very happy manner. He made one of the finest off-hand efforts we have ever listened to. Among the resolutions adopted were those in favor of a national bureau of education, a system of county supervision, and district normal institutes and a State normal school. The institute was the first held in the county for several years. It is proposed to hold another in the spring.



**WOOD COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—This institute continued in session two weeks closing Nov. 23. The first week's instruction was given by the county examiners—D. A. Avery, J. W. Ewing, and Capt. Canfield—and Wm. Callihan, of Bowling Green. The writer assisted the second week. About one hundred teachers were present, and manifested a deep interest in the exercises. Note-books were faithfully used, all seeming anxious to treasure up every practical hint and direction. The success of this institute is largely due to the earnest, practical teachers that compose the county board of examiners. The MONTHLY received over thirty subscribers, and the proposed normal school and county supervision earnest indorsement. The educational fires are burning brightly in the north-west.

**COLUMBIANA COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—We have received no official report from this institute, but learn that it was successfully conducted. Capt. W. Mitchell, Sup't of the schools of Columbus, was the principal instructor. As long as Father Anderson lives we shall have annually an institute item for our pages.

**WASHINGTON COUNTY INSTITUTE.**—We learn from *The News and Educator* that this institute, held at Marietta, Nov. 12-16, was one of best ever held in the State. It was conducted by President Andrews, of Marietta College, assisted by Prof. Tappan, of Ohio University, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, and Prof. Kidd. One hundred and fifty-six teachers were present.

**OUR CIRCULATION IN GRADED SCHOOLS.**—We have been looking through our subscription book to ascertain how many subscribers we have among the teachers of our graded schools. Here is the result, omitting all districts that do not give us more than three subscribers:

Ashland, 5; Akron, 7; Athens, 11; Brownsville, 7; Bartlett, 6; Bush Hill, 5; Chillicothe, 4; Cincinnati, 60 (1st Dis. 9, 2d Dis. 9, 9th Dis. 15, 13th Dis. 8, East Colored 9); Cleveland, 90; Columbus, 21 (State Street 10, Middle Building 5); Cambridge, 6; Columbiana, 4; Celina, 5; Canton, 19; Carrollton, 5; Coshocton, 5; Coolville, 5; Castalia, 9; Cumberland, 5; Delta, 9; Dayton, 6; Dublin (Ind.), 6; Elyria, 4; Findlay, 15; Fostoria, 5; Franklin, 9; Fairview, 6; Freemont, 18; Goshen, 9; Greenfield, 7; Gustavus, 5; Gallipolis, 7; Hillsboro, 11; Hayesville, 5; Iron Furnace, 7; Ironton, 20; Jackson C. H., 5; Kenton, 16; Kingstown, 5; Lancaster, 9; Lebanon, 9; Lima, 5; Lucasville, 5; McConnelsville, 4; Marietta, 8; Martinsville, 4; Massillon, 7; Mansfield, 17; Milan, 4; Marion, 5; Mt. Union (College), 18; Medina, 6; Middlebury, 4; Marysville, 6; Norwalk, 9; New Philadelphia, 6; Newark, 8; New Lisbon, 7; Nashville (Tenn.), 11; New Dover, 4; Portsmouth, 20; Plymouth, 5; Piketon, 4; Piqua, 7; Ravenna, 8; Richmond (Ind.), 8; Rarden, 4; Racine, 6; Roscoe, 4; Rollersville, 6; Salem, 11; Sandusky, 7; Smithville, 6; Shelby, 6; San Francisco (Cal.), 5; St. Clairsville, 7; Toledo, 13; Tiffin, 29; Waynesville, 8; Wheeling (W. Va.), 11; Warren, 12; Wauseon, 5; Wooster, 12; West Union, 4; West Unity, 5; Washington, 7; Woodville, 4; Xenia, 11; Yellow Springs, 4; Youngstown, 10.

In some cases we may have counted subscribers who do not belong to the graded schools. Had we included schools in which we have two or three subscribers, the list would be much larger.

**HADLEY'S ACADEMY.**—While one of our co-laborers was occupying the attention of the Richmond institute, we paid a brief visit to Mr. Hadley's school. We found it thoroughly graded and classified, and a most excellent corps of teachers in charge of the several departments. In the primary room we listened to the recitation of a class using Guyot's Primary Geography. The exercise afforded a pleasing and marked contrast to the usual performances of classes beginning the study of this subject. The teachers were enthusiastic in their praise of the new books; and we left quite as enthusiastic in praise of the skillful teaching we had witnessed. Mr. Hadley is one of

the most efficient and progressive teachers in the West, and we wish him continued success in his efforts to build up a *model school*. Among his teachers we were pleased to meet Miss Nellie Sharp, for several years a successful teacher in the public schools of Columbus, O.—a fact bearing witness to Mr. H.'s skill in selecting good teachers.

**A HINDOO QUESTION IN ARITHMETIC.**—The following arithmetical question was put to Rev. W. B. Capron, an American missionary in Southern India, by one of his native pupils:

A shepherd brought 24 measures of milk to the palace, and asked to be led into the presence of the king, but the first door-keeper took out one measure of milk and substituted a measure of water. The second door-keeper did the same, and so on through the 24 door-keepers, till the shepherd came to the department of the king. The king was very angry to find his milk so much watered, and on hearing the explanation from the shepherd, he fined the door-keepers 24 pieces of gold, or one piece of gold each. But the twenty-fourth door-keeper exclaimed against the injustice of fining him as much for taking one measure of milk and water as the first door-keeper for taking a measure of pure milk. If, therefore, the fine were fairly divided, how much would each of the 24 door-keepers have to pay?—A piece of gold equals ten fanams, and a fanam equals ten cents.

The question is copied from an interesting letter written by Mr. Capron to the Second Presbyterian Sabbath-school of this city, and handed to us by the superintendent. We submit it to the young arithmeticians in the common schools of the State. Who ill send us a solution?

**MR. THOMAS HUGHES**, author of *Tom Brown at Rugby* and *Tom Brown at Oxford*, and member of Parliament, thus comments in the *New York Tribune* on the Social Congress held in England in October:

"On the whole, I think the chief results of this year have been, to strengthen very much the hands of those who advocate compulsory State education, and to convince many doubters of the unspeakable importance of the co-operation movement. On both subjects I can speak from personal experience. I was much struck by the number of strenuous supporters in old days of the voluntary system, who told me they had changed their minds, and were prepared to support a general education rate to be administered by the municipal authorities, and an extension of the factory acts into all department of industrial life. So next session we shall probably get a bill going about half way, and in another ten years or so may hope to have nearly as good a free school system as you have."

**MINNESOTA.**—The corner-stone of the new edifice for the State Normal School, was laid October 19th, with interesting ceremonies. The building, when completed, will be one of the best in the country. The school is located at Winona, and is under the direction of Professor William F. Phelps, late of New Jersey, and widely known as a zealous advocate of normal training. The school is in a prosperous condition.—At the late meeting of the State Teachers' Association, the nativity of the members present was found to be as follows: New England, 90; New York, 55; Pennsylvania, 5; Ohio, 14; all other States, 23—total number present, 195. Prof. Phelps is the president elect.

**ILLINOIS COLLEGES.**—There was a conference in Chicago, Oct. 30, of the presidents of Illinois colleges, at which the principal collegiate institutions of the State were represented. A committee was appointed to inquire into the following subjects: "A union of all the colleges on a permanent organization; the propriety of asking aid of the Legislature to the several colleges to educate free of charge our returned soldiers; the expediency of short scientific courses of study, and the expediency of female education in our colleges."

**THE DROPPING OF GREEK FROM THE PREPARATORY COURSE.**—Our January issue will contain an excellent article approving of our suggestion on this subject. The writer is a warm friend of the classics. We have also received a letter from President Merrick, of the Ohio Wesleyan University, heartily endorsing our late editorial.

**CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.**—We learn that the board of education of Zanesville have forbidden corporal punishment in the schools under their control. We shall soon be able to record the result of this action. Meanwhile can we not have a discussion of the question suggested by "Yours Truly" in our November number, viz: "What forms of punishment are proper in the administration of school government?"

**BUSINESS SCHOOLS.**—Nelson's Union Business College, Cincinnati, and the Capital City Business College, Columbus, each advertised in this number, give more attention to general education than most of the schools of their class. They are under the direction of experienced teachers.

**SOUTH WESTERN NORMAL SCHOOL.**—This institution is in a very prosperous condition. By referring to the advertisement of the Principal, it will be seen that the number of students enrolled last year, was over 700. The new catalogue will be sent to any person who may request it. Address A. Holbrook, Lebanon, Warren Co., O.

**SIX NUMBERS.**—We have a few extra copies of the first six numbers of the current volume, bound together, which we will send to any address, prepaid, on receipt of *fifty cents*.

**BOARDS OF EDUCATION** can secure the address of a lady competent to take charge of a high school, by applying to this office.

## BOOK NOTICES.

Almost continuous institute labor for several weeks, has prevented an examination of the many new books which have been sent us for notice. We acknowledge their receipt, hoping soon to give them more worthy attention:

**A. S. BARNES & Co., New York.**—Parker & Watson's National Fifth Reader; Fowle's Bible Reader; Fowle's Principles of Linear and Perspective Drawing; Nash and Bristow's Cantara or Teacher of Singing; and Maurice Poitevin's Grammaire Francaise.

**D. APPLETON & Co., New York.**—Appleton's Practical Arithmetic; Appleton's Elementary Arithmetic; and Appleton's Primary Arithmetic.

**SHELDON & Co., New York.**—Stoddard's New Practical Arithmetic; Stoddard's American Intellectual Arithmetic; Stoddard's Rudiments of Arithmetic; Stoddard's Juvenile Arithmetic; and Bullions's Common School Grammar.

**INGHAM & BRAGG, Cleveland, Western Agents for Charles Scribner & Co., New York.**—Felter's Analysis of Arithmetic; Tenney's Natural History of Animals; Kirkland's Patriotic Eloquence; Field's History of the Atlantic Telegraph; Sheldon's First Reading Book; Smith's Manual for Perce's Magnetic Globe; and Key to Guyot's Wall Maps.

**COWPERTHWAIT & Co., Philadelphia.**—Warren's Common School Geography; Berard's United States History; and Berard's Manual of Spanish Art and Literature.

**J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co., Philadelphia.**—Halleck's Elements of International Law and Laws of War; and The Metric System—a neat brochure of 38 pages.

**IVISON, PHINNEY, BLAKEMAN & Co., New York.**—Alden's Christian Ethics, or the Science of Duty; Hailman's Outlines of Object Teaching; Goodson's Drawing from Objects; Spencerian Copy-Books; and The American Educational Almanac, 1867.

BREWER & TILESTON, Boston.—Walton's Written Arithmetic; Walton's Tables for Practice in the Fundamental Operations of Arithmetic; and Worcester's Primary Spelling-Book.

HARPER & BROTHERS, New York.—Willson's New Fourth Reader; and Dr. Smith's Principia Latina. Part II.

SARGENT, WILSON & HUNKLE, Cincinnati.—Ray's Rudiments of Arithmetic; and The Eclectic Educational Almanac, 1867.

ELDERIDGE & BRO., Philadelphia.—Parker's English Grammar; and Parker's Introductory Lessons in English Grammar.

CROSSY & AINSWORTH, Boston.—Magill's French Grammar.

TAGGARD & THOMPSON, Boston.—Philbrick's Primary Union Speaker.

SHAW AND ALLEN'S COMPREHENSIVE GEOGRAPHY. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

This work has been tested in the eighth grade (grade next below the high school) of Salem Union School for the last year. The result has been that a new life has been infused into that grade in the study of geography. The work abounds with facts which have hitherto been dealt out to pupils only by well-read teachers. These facts do much to sustain an interest in the study. As there may be some readers of the MONTHLY that have never seen the Geography, it may be proper to give an outline of the work.

The general heads are "Natural History," "Ancient History," "Medieval History," "Modern History," "Mathematical Geography," "Physical Geography," "Physical and Political Geography." Besides the general discussion of physical geography, there is given a particular discussion of each division before the political geography. The order of divisions is Asia, Oceanica, Africa, Europe, South America, North America and United States. This is a peculiarity, but, I conceive, no special advantage. The illustrations are both good and well chosen, and the maps, both physical and political, well executed, and not crowded with irrelevant matter.

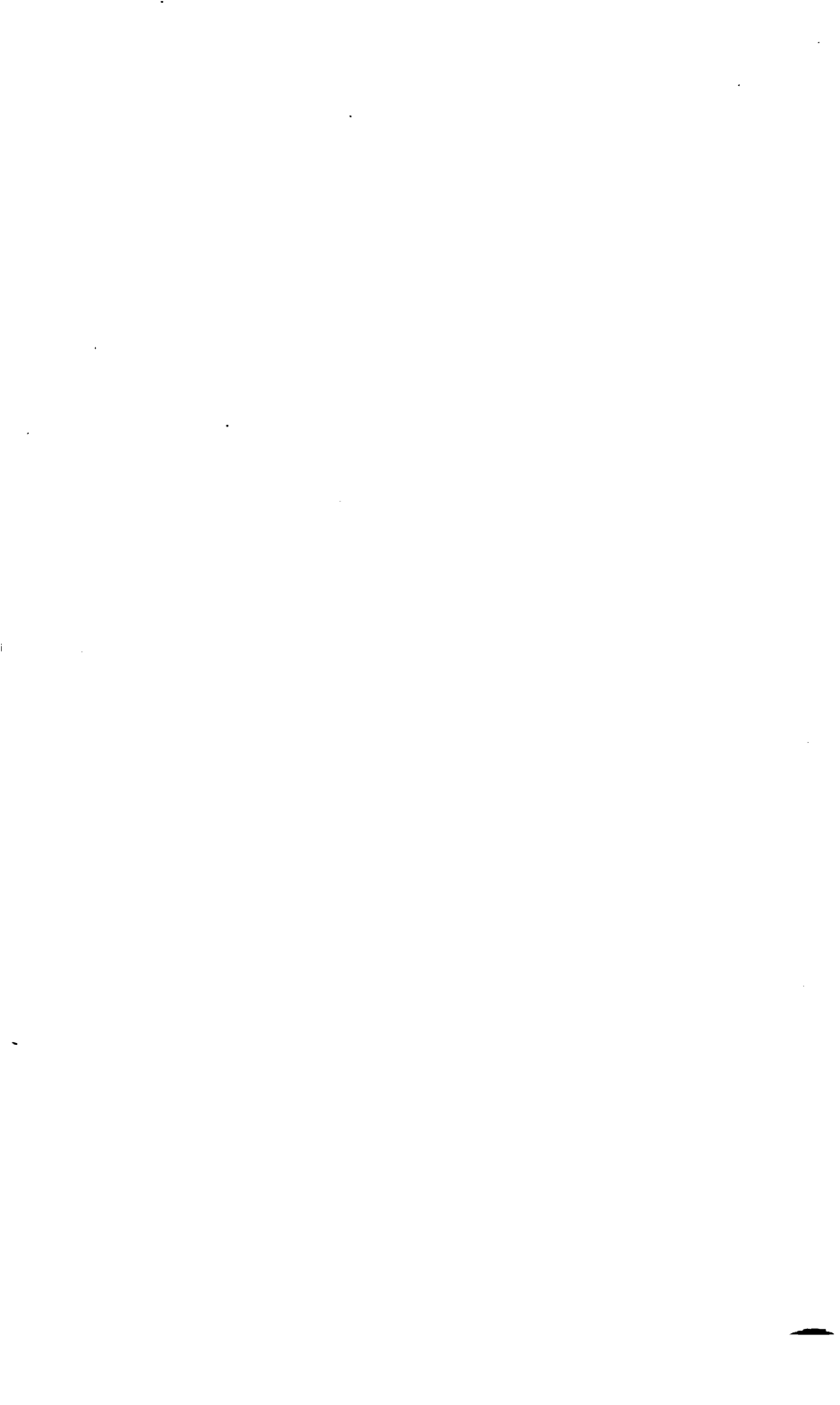
W. D. H.

WARREN'S COMMON SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY; An Elementary Treatise on Mathematical, Physical, and Political Geography. By D. M. WARREN, author of a Treatise on Physical Geography, etc. Last Revised Edition. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co. 1866.

The geographical course presented in this work is intermediate between that of Mitchell and Guyot, containing more of physical geography and less of local than the former, and less of physical and more of local than the latter. In the descriptive text there is a judicious grouping of countries that have the same physical characteristics, and the general features of each country are usually given before details. The pupil is thus led to recognize the similarity in countries that belong to the same geographical sections. This idea is not, however, carried out as fully as in the author's excellent treatise on Physical Geography. We also observe that the topics are introduced in their natural order—the position and surface of each country being given before the climate and productions.

The work contains an entirely new series of finely engraved copper-plate maps,—the two hemispheres being the finest map representations of the spherical form of the earth we have ever seen. All the maps are accompanied (on the opposite page) with a reasonable number of excellent questions; questions that will make a pupil open his eyes and use his wits. In illustrations and typography, the work has very few equals even among American school-books which hold the highest rank in artistic excellence.

In short, this new edition of Warren's Common-School Geography is worthy of high commendation.



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